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VOLUME III.

BIRBHUM TO COCANÁDA.

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Corrigendum to Article BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.

P. 67, line 7—*For* 'directly managed by Government officers,' *read* 'generally managed by a Court of Regency, or by a joint Administration composed of a Government officer and a representative of the Native State.'

The author regrets that owing to the death of a gentleman in whose hands he had placed the manuscript materials for Western India, the revision of several articles, particularly those for Ahmadábád, and Bombay City and Presidency, has not been so complete as he would have desired.

W. W. H.



THE INDIAN EMPIRE
Prepared for Dr. W. W. Hunter's
IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles = to 1 inch
THIBET
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN
RAJPUTANA
CENTRAL PROVINCES
NIZAM'S DOMINIONS
MYSORE
BURMA
ARABIAN SEA
Tropic of Cancer
Gulf of Cutch
Gulf of Cambay
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Laccadive Islands
Maldive Islands
Months of the Ganges
BAY OF BENGAL
Gulf of Martaban
Mergui Archipelago
Andaman Isl.
Nicobar Islands
SUMATRA
INDIAN OCEAN
CALCUTTA
BOMBAY
MADRAS
Long. E. of Greenwich
REFERENCES
British Territory colored Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States Yellow
Independent States Green
Railways opened
Do. not opened
Roads
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.
Engraved by W. & A.K. Johnston, Edinburgh & London.

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME III.

Bírbhúm (*Beerbhoom*).—District of the Bardwán Division, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 34′ and 24° 35′ N. lat., and between 87° 7′ 30″ and 88° 4′ 15″ E. long.; area, 1756 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 794,428 souls. It is bounded on the north-west by the Santál Parganás; on the east by the Districts of Murshidábád and Bardwán; and on the south by Bardwán District, the Ajái river forming the boundary line for the whole distance. The District takes its name, according to the Sanskrit etymologists, from *Vir-Bhúmi*, 'hero-land;' but the Santáli word *Vir*, meaning jungle, has also been suggested as its derivation. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at Suri town.

Physical Aspects.—The eastern portion of the District is an alluvial plain, presenting the ordinary features of the Bengal lowlands; towards the west the ground rises, the surface consisting of undulating beds of laterite, which rest on a basis of rock. Granitic veins traverse the District in parts, occasionally appearing on the surface. About 15 miles south-west of the Civil Station of Surí, there is a curious mass of granite, rising to a height of 30 or 40 feet, split up into numerous irregular fragments by the action of sun and rain. No navigable river flows through Bírbhúm; the largest stream is the Ajai, which forms the southern boundary line of the District. The other streams deserving notice are the Mor or Maureksha, the Bakeswar, the Hinglá, and the Dwarká. The Mor, which flows in a wide sandy bed, is navigable during the rains, but by descending boats only. Small canoes are built on the banks, and floated down during the freshets; they carry charcoal to Katwá, where they are sold with their cargoes, as they cannot be taken up stream again. There are no lakes or canals in the District.

On the bank of the Bakeswar *nálá*, about a mile south of the village of Tántipárá, occurs a group of sulphur springs, named the Bhúm Bakeswar, and numerous hot jets also burst forth in the bed of the stream itself. This spot is a noted place of pilgrimage, and the right bank of the stream is covered with temples erected by pilgrims in honour of Mahádeo or Siva. Another warm spring breaks out near the village of Sakarakunda. Iron and limestone are the only minerals of any importance found in the District. Iron-ores have long been worked under the rough native mode of smelting; and within recent years an attempt has been made to ascertain whether more extended operations might not profitably be carried out according to the European process of manufacture. The larger kinds of wild beasts, which formerly infested Bírbhúm, have now almost disappeared, with the exception of an occasional tiger or bear which wanders into the cultivated tracts from the jungles of the Santál Parganás on the west. Small game, such as hares, partridges, wild duck, quail, and snipe, are common.

History.—The area of the District is at present much more limited than in former times. When it first came under British administration, the Bírbhúm *zamíndárí* occupied an area of 3858 square miles; and the District included in addition the *zamíndárí* of Bishnupur, which was in the beginning of the present century separated and formed into the independent Collectorate of Bánkurá. Some years later, reductions were made in the remaining portion of Bírbhúm District, by the separation from it of considerable tracts on the west, which now form part of the Santál Parganás. Finally, within the last few years, in order to make the different jurisdictions conterminous, further transfers of small tracts have been made to and from the District, the present (1883) area of the District being 1756 square miles.

In the beginning of the 18th century, the *zamíndárí* of Bírbhúm was conferred by Jafar Khán on one Asad-ullá Pathán, whose family had settled in the country a century earlier, after the fall of the Pathan dynasty of Bengal. The estate remained in the family until the British obtained, in 1765, the financial administration of Bengal. It was not till 1787, however, that the Company assumed the direct government of Bírbhúm. Before that year, the local authority was suffered to remain in the hands of the Rájá. Meanwhile, bands of marauders from the western highlands, after making frequent predatory incursions, had established themselves in the District. The Rájá could do nothing against these invaders, who formed large permanent camps in strong positions, intercepted the revenues on the way to the treasury, brought the commercial operations of the Company to a stand-still, and caused many of the factories to be abandoned. It became absolutely necessary for the English Government to interfere; and the first step in that direction was taken in 1787, when the two border principalities

Bírbhúm and Bánkurá were united into one District, a considerable armed force being maintained to repress the bands of plunderers on the western frontier. On one occasion, in 1788, the Collector had to call out the troops against a band of marauders five hundred strong, who had made a descent on a market town within two hours' ride of the English station, and murdered or frightened away the inhabitants of between thirty and forty villages.

In the beginning of the following year (1789), the inroads assumed even more serious proportions, the plunderers going about sacking villages 'in parties of three or four hundred men, well found in arms.' The population was panic-stricken, the large villages and trading depôts were abandoned, and the Collector was compelled hastily to recall the outposts stationed at the frontier passes, to levy a militia supplementing the regular troops, and obtain reinforcements of soldiery from the neighbouring Districts. The marauders could not hold out against the forces thus brought against them, and were driven back into the mountains. Order was soon established, and the country recovered with amazing rapidity from the disastrous effects of the ravages to which it had been exposed. The neglected fields were cultivated once more; the inhabitants returned to the deserted villages; and the people, reassured by the success of the measures taken by the Government, eagerly joined them against the marauders. In the beginning of the present century, the District was reported to be remarkably free from robbery; and so completely have the troublous times through which it passed faded from local memory, that, a few years ago, the District was described in a public document as still enjoying 'its old immunity from crime.' The District is now as peaceful as any in Bengal, and the administrative statistics, which will be found below, furnish an eloquent commentary on the results of British rule in Bírbhúm.

Population.—The population of the District in 1872, as returned by the Census of that year, but allowing for all transfers to and from the District since then, was 853,785. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 794,428, being a decrease of 59,357, or 6·95 per cent. on the area of the District as at present constituted, namely, 1756 square miles. This decrease is due to the ravages of the 'Bardwán fever,' which has been devastating the Division since 1861. Average density of population (1881) 452·40 per square mile; number of towns or villages, 3273; number of occupied houses, 181,068; unoccupied houses, 18,932; number of villages per square mile, 1·86; number of houses per square mile, 113·90; number of persons per occupied house, 4·39. Divided according to sex, the males numbered 381,563, and the females 412,865; proportion of males, 48·0 per cent. This disproportion of the sexes, which is noticeable

n every District of the Bardwán Division, is owing to its proximity to Calcutta; many men go there in search of employment, leaving their wives and families behind. Classified according to religion, the Hindus predominate largely, numbering 617,310, or 77·70 per cent. of the population; the Muhammadans were returned at 162,621, or 20·47 per cent.; Christians, 48; and 'others,' consisting mainly of aboriginal tribes who still retain their primitive forms of faith, 14,449, or 1·82 per cent. Of the highest and respectable castes of Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 39,724; Rájputs, 8344; Káyasths, 8902; and Baniyás, 18,103. Of the Súdra castes, the most important are the Sadgops, the chief cultivating class, numbering 79,621. The other most numerous castes are the following:—Kálu, 20,783; Bagdí, 40,032; Chamár, 30,975; Dom, 35,316; Baurí, 27,258; and Harí, 23,286, who form the lowest classes of the Hindu social organization. The Muhammadans are divided according to sect into—Sunnís, 157,316; Shiás, 3565; and unspecified, 1740. Of the 48 Christians, 29 were native converts. The population of Bírbhúm is entirely rural, the only towns with upwards of 5000 inhabitants being SURI, the administrative headquarters, with a population of 7848; and MARGRAM, with 6008. The 3273 villages or towns in 1881 were classified as follows:—Containing less than two hundred inhabitants, 1979; from two to five hundred, 945; from five hundred to a thousand, 264; from one to two thousand, 74; from two to three thousand, 5; from three to five thousand, 4; and from five to ten thousand, 2. The Census Report of 1881 classified the male population as regards occupation under the following six main headings:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military officers, all Government officials, and the learned professions, 11,089; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 8351; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7046; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 146,308; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 29,844; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 22,583 general labourers, and 156,155 male children, and unspecified), 178,925.

Material Condition of the People.—The general style of living in Bírbhúm District is poor. The ordinary dress of the men consists of a waistcloth (*dhutí*), the quality of which differs according to the circumstances of the wearer. The houses are usually mud-walled, but one or two substantial brick houses are found in almost every village. Rice pulse (*dál*), vegetables, and fish form the ordinary food of the people. The estimated cost of living for an average-sized household of well-to-do shopkeeper is about £1, 10s. per month, and for that of an ordinary cultivator, from 8s. to 10s. a month. A peasant's holding exceeding 17 acres in extent would be considered a large-sized farm less than 5 acres is looked upon as a very small holding. The usu

quantity of ground cultivated by a single pair of oxen is about 5 acres; but a peasant holding a small farm of this size would not be so well off as an ordinary retail shopkeeper, nor would he be able to live so comfortably as a man with a pay of 16s. a month. As a class, the peasantry are said not to be generally in debt.

The most interesting place in the District is Rájnagar or Nagar, the ancient Hindu capital of Bírbhúm. The town has now fallen into decay, and the old palace is fast crumbling to ruins, but considerable portions of the famous wall or entrenchment built to protect the city from the Maráthás still remain. This wall was from 12 to 18 feet high; it was surrounded by a ditch, and extended in an irregular and broken line round Nagar for a distance of more than 30 miles, its average distance from the town being about 4 miles. Many parts of it have now been washed level with the ground by the annual rains. Among other places of interest in Bírbhúm are—GANUTIA on the north bank of the Mor, the centre of the important silk industry of the District; ILAMBAZAR and DUBRAJPUR, considerable trading villages; SURUL, now a village of no importance, but once a large and flourishing town where the greater part of the Company's District trade was centred; KENDULI, the birthplace of the poet Jayadeva, in whose house 50,000 persons assemble at the annual fair in February; and Tántípárá, near which are the hot springs already mentioned. Bolpur, Ahmadpur, Synthia, Mallarpur, Rámpurhát, Nalhátí, Murarai, and Rájgáon are rapidly rising in importance as stations on the East Indian Railway, and attracting much of the trade which formerly went by water. Nawáda is a station of the State Railway from Nalhátí to Azímganj in Murshidábád, which intersects the north of the District from east to west.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in Bírbhúm, as throughout the rest of Bengal, is rice. During the last quarter of a century the area under this staple has greatly extended, by the reclamation of large tracts of jungle land. It has been roughly estimated that at present fifteen-sixteenths of the tilled land in the District is under this crop. The *áus* or autumn crop is reaped in August and September, the ordinary *áman* or winter crop in November and December; an earlier variety of *áman* in the beginning of November. Speaking roughly, ordinary rice land, which pays a rental of 9s. an acre, yields from 13 to 17½ cwts. of paddy or husked rice per acre, valued at £1, 10s. to £2, 2s. 8d.; land paying 18s. an acre, gives an out-turn in paddy and wheat, valued at £3, 16s. to £4, 10s. an acre. Among the other crops cultivated in Bírbhúm, are sugar-cane, mulberry, *pán*, gram, peas, and oil-seeds. Manure is in general use throughout the District; the quantity of cow-dung required for rice land being about 45 cwts. per acre, valued at 6s.; while sugar-cane land requires five times that

quantity. Irrigation is effected from tanks, which are very numerou in the District. A large proportion of the cultivators hold their lanc with rights of occupancy, and, as a rule, they are not in debt. Ther is no class of small proprietors in the District who own, occupy, an cultivate their hereditary lands without either a superior landlord above or a sub-tenant or labourer of any kind under them. The prices o food-grain have greatly increased of late years. In 1788, ordinary ric was selling at 2s. 10d. a cwt.; in 1872, the price was 3s. $5\frac{1}{2}$d. pe cwt. It is noticeable, however, that the price of rice of the fines quality, of which there is little consumption, has not altered, being both in 1788 and 1872, 4s. 3d. per cwt. The current rate of wages for coolies or ordinary day-labourers is 8s. a month; for carpenters, 16s.; for bricklayers, 16s. to £1; and for blacksmiths, 16s. to £1, 4s. a month.

Natural Calamities.—The District is not liable to droughts, floods, or other natural calamities, although it has occasionally suffered from scanty rainfall. During the famine of 1866, the highest price of common rice in Bírbhúm was 15s. 8d. per cwt., and of paddy, 6s. 10d. per cwt. The means of communication and transit throughout the District are amply sufficient to allow of easy importation in case of scarcity, and to prevent the danger of any tract being isolated. The roads are good and sufficiently numerous, being 594 miles in length in 1881; the East Indian Railway runs through the District from north to south for a distance of 68 miles, and the Nalhátí and Azímganj State Railway, east and west for 11 miles.

Commerce and Trade.—The chief export of the District is rice, which is despatched by railway both up and down the line. The other exports, such as indigo, lac, raw silk, and oil-seeds, find their way mostly to the Calcutta market. The principal imports are salt, cotton, cotton cloth, pulses, tobacco, wheat, and metal ware. The principal trading villages and seats of commerce are Dubrájpur, Ilambázár, Bolpu Synthia, Purandarpur, Krinnáhár, and Muhammad Bázár Surí. Th head-quarters town of the District is unimportant from a commerci point of view. The crops of the District suffice to meet the local wants; and in the case of rice and oil-seeds, large expor are made to other parts of the country. The exports far exceed t imports in value, and a considerable accumulation of money is said be going on.

Manufactures: Silk.—The principal manufacture of Bírbhúm silk, which is produced in the eastern part of the District; the villa of Ganutiá, on the north bank of the Mor, being the head-quarters the industry. Here is the factory which, established nearly a cent ago by Mr. Frushard, under a contract for the supply of silk to East India Company, is now owned by an English firm in Calcu

and gives employment to a large number of people. The story of the annoyances to which this pioneer of silk cultivation was exposed at the hands of the Company's officers, and the manner in which he was defrauded by the Rájá, will be found at length in my *Annals of Rural Bengal.* It can only be briefly stated here that, being charged for the land he bought more than four times its market value, he soon fell into arrears with the Rájá, who made his non-payment an excuse for being himself behind with his land-tax. The Collector could not distrain the factory lands, as such a step would have interfered with the regular supply of the silk investment, and Mr. Frushard secured himself from arrest by living beyond his jurisdiction. The case was at length brought before the Court of Directors; and eventually, Lord Cornwallis, in 1791, ordered that all his past arrears should be forgiven, that his rent should for the future be reduced by nearly one-half, and that the Collector should deduct whatever this sum amounted to from the land-tax payable by the Rájá. Since that time things have gone smoothly, and Mr. Frushard's factory, several times renewed, is now one of the most important buildings in the District. The annual outlay averages £72,000, and the value of the general silk manufactures exceeds £160,000. The silk is usually sold in a raw state, and finds its way to the Calcutta and European markets. The factory at Ganutiá is surrounded by numbers of smaller filatures, the silk reeled in these being either consumed in the local manufacture of piece-goods, or sent to Murshidábád, and the silk-consuming towns of the North-West Provinces and the Punjab.

Four varieties of domesticated or regularly bred silkworms are known in Bírbhúm, the best silk being obtained from the *bara palu,* an annual worm. The breeding of the worm is conducted in the following manner. The cocoons are formed in March, the earliest formed being reserved for breeding purposes. The moths begin to emerge on the eighth day after the formation of the cocoon, and continue to emerge till the eleventh day. As the moths make their way out of the cocoons, they are put into other baskets, and the males and females for the most part pair spontaneously and at once. About the middle of the day, the males and females are separated, the males eing thrown away, and the females placed on a cloth in a large basket. n hour afterwards, they begin to lay eggs, and continue laying during e night and till the afternoon of the following day. The eggs are en wrapped in three or four folds of cloth and put in an earthen t, which is covered over with a plastering of earth and cow-dung. the following January or February the pots are opened, and the gs begin to hatch, those hatched each day being kept separate. The tching extends over a period varying from 15 to 25 days according the temperature. The worms are fed as soon as hatched,—during

he first stage on the tenderest leaves chopped fine, then on whol eaves, and in the last stage the twigs are thrown in whole. Food is given three times a day. The worms are kept in baskets which are placed in a wooden stand, one above the other; as the worms grow, they are placed in larger baskets with fewer worms to each. The full-grown larva is about an inch long and three-quarters of an inch in girth, generally of a white colour with the usual black markings, but the white is tinged with varying shades of yellow and red in different worms. From about twelve to eight days after the last moult, according to the temperature, the worms begin to form their cocoons. They are then placed in a tray which is partitioned off into spinning holes by slips of bamboo, and placed with its back to the sun, the warmth promoting the formation of the cocoon. After formation, the chrysalides which are not wanted for propagation are killed by exposure to the sun, and the cocoons are then ready for the market. Of this kind of silkworm, twelve *kaháns* ($1280 \times 12 = 15,360$) of cocoons will yield one local *ser* or $1\frac{1}{3}$ lbs. avoirdupois of spun silk. Another variety of silkworm, the *nistri* worm, is smaller than the above, and five breedings or crops (*bands*) are obtained in the course of the year, of which those obtained in January and July are the best. Two crops out of the five seem to be altogether neglected, and are called *chhorá* or refuse bands in consequence. The cocoon of the *nistri* is of a golden colour, but the yield is less than that of the *bara palu*—sixteen *kaháns* ($1280 \times 16 = 20,480$) of cocoons only produce one local *ser* or $1\frac{1}{3}$ lbs. of silk. The eggs hatch in nine or ten days. In the cold weather, the cycle of the worm is about sixty days, reduced in the hot weather to forty. The *desi* or *chhottá palu* also yields some five or six crops during the year. In most respects it is very like the *nistri*, and its yield of silk is about the same.

No estimate exists showing the total out-turn of cocoons, but it is considerably less now than formerly, owing partly to the depressed state of the silk trade, and partly to the prevalence of disease among the worms. The insect suffers from three maladies in Bírbhúm Dis trict, known as (1) *chit rog*, (2) *narmja rog*, and (3) *katase rog*. Th first-named disease seizes the worm in its final stage. Those attacke turn quite hard and die; and it is said that even the crows, wh greedily devour the worms whenever they get a chance, will not e those which have died of this disorder. The second attacks the wor when about to spin. Little white spots or pustules break out on t body, and the worm becomes torpid, and in two or three days me away in corruption. The third disease may come at any stage growth. The worms seized turn a greyish colour, water runs from mouth, and they ultimately rot away. All three diseases are belie to be eminently contagious. The description of the disease does

seem to correspond with that of either peprine or gattine, the maladies most dreaded in Europe. No remedies are adopted, and it is said that none have ever been tried.

From the silkworm traders the cocoons pass to the filatures. Sometimes a cultivator who grows the mulberry keeps worms as well, and also reels off the cocoons himself; but more generally the three operations of growing the mulberry, rearing worms, and reeling silk, are kept quite distinct, and are performed by different persons. The cocoons used at the factories are either bought by contract direct from the breeders, or through commission agents. The European factory at Ganutiá, and its branch filatures, have been alluded to above. But in addition to these there are numerous little village filatures, worked by native families. These village filatures, with perhaps one pair of basins apiece, are situated in the peasant's homestead, and worked in a very rude way. The raw silk from the English factory finds its way to the Calcutta and European markets. That reeled in the villages is partly consumed locally, and partly sent to the Murshidábád market, and to the silk-consuming towns of the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab. Some part also finds its way to the looms of Surat and Ahmadábád in Bombay, or is worked up into *dhutí* fringes in the Central Provinces. The Bombay weavers buy a kind of raw silk called *bhursut* woven from ten cocoons, and therefore thicker than the five or six cocoon thread which finds favour in the Calcutta market. The local fabrics of silk are plain piece-goods; but very little silk-weaving is carried on. The weavers who manufacture silk fabrics generally work under a system of advances from the Murshidábád silk dealers. A few, however, are sufficiently enterprising to invest their little capital on their own account.

Tasar silk is manufactured in the western parts of the District, and at Ilambázár on the north bank of the Ajái. The trade in *tasar* silk cloth has declined of late years, owing to a falling off in the demand in the Calcutta market. Cotton-weaving is carried on to a considerable extent, giving employment to 7500 cotton-weavers, and this industry appears to have more vitality in Bírbhúm than in some other Bengal Districts. The cultivators buy in the market the cotton of the North-Western Provinces, have it spun into rude yarn by the women, and take the yarn to the village weaver, who weaves it up into coarse cloth, under the eye of the owner or a representative, who always sits by to see that the yarn is not stolen. Some widows eke out a livelihood by spinning cotton, and spinning the Bráhmanical thread is an occupation usually confined to Bráhman widows. The preparation of indigo and shell-lac are among the other industries, and attempts have recently been made to utilize the local supply of iron. The ores have long been worked on the rough native mode of smelting; and the object of

the recent attempts was to ascertain whether more extended operations might not be profitably carried out according to European processes, under competent supervision. Although the iron produced seems to have been of good quality and well suited for manufacturing purposes, the experiment was not a financial success, and the enterprise dropped.

Administration.—The administrative staff of the District in 1881–82 consisted of a Magistrate-Collector, Joint Magistrate, and European Deputy Collector, 4 native Deputy Collectors, District superintendent of police with an assistant, civil and sessions judge and sub-judge, 4 subordinate civil judges (*munsifs*), civil surgeon, district engineer, 12 honorary magistrates, 4 rural sub-registrars, etc. In consequence of the numerous changes which have taken place from time to time in the area of Bírbhúm District, it is impossible to compare with any accuracy the revenue and expenditure at different periods; but the figures at our disposal show, in a very distinct way, the prosperity which the District has enjoyed under British rule. In 1790–91, the net revenue of the District, which then consisted of Bírbhúm (including the greater part of the Santál Parganás) and Bishnupur, was £108,270, and the net civil expenditure £6281. At the time of the Permanent Settlement (1793), Bishnupur or Bánkurá was separated from Bírbhúm, and in 1820–21 the revenue had fallen to £78,248, the expenditure being £11,930. In 1850–51, the revenue was £89,300, and the expenditure £23,719. In 1860–61, the revenue amounted to £93,795, and the expenditure to £23,207. Subsequent to 1860 the area of the District was further reduced by the transfer of several *parganás*, but the revenue and expenditure continued to increase; and in 1870–71 the total net revenue was £102,841, or nearly the same as that of the united District in 1790, while the net civil expenditure was £28,054, or more than four times what it was in 1790. In 1881–82, after the area of the District had been increased by the transfer of Rámpur-hat police circle from Murshidábád, the total revenue of Bírbhúm amounted to £124,372 and the net civil expenditure to £43,295, or seven times the amount of expenditure in 1790. In 1790–91, the joint land revenue of Bírbhúm and Bánkurá amounted to £106,071; in 1870–71, the land revenue of Bírbhúm alone was £73,558; and in 1881, £80,17 With the increasing prosperity of the District, the machinery for the protection of person and property has been improved. The police force employed for this purpose in 1881 consisted of (1) a regular police, composed of 2 superior and 47 subordinate officers and 2 constables; (2) a small municipal force of 1 native officer and 16 men for the protection of Surí; and (3) a village watch of 7614 *ghátwáls* and *chaukídárs*: total, 7898 officers and men, or 1 man to every 100 of the population. The cost of maintaining the District and munic

police in 1881 was £5749, of which £5589 was derived from imperial funds, equal to an average of 3⅝d. per head of the population; and exclusive of an estimated sum of £13,392 contributed in money or lands by the *zamíndárs* and villagers. In 1881, 804 persons were convicted of 'cognisable' and 533 of 'non-cognisable' offences, or 1 person to every 594 of the population.

There are seven *thánás* or police circles in the District, namely—Surí, Dubrájpur, Sákulipur, Rámpur-hát, Maureswar, and Nalháti, besides nine outpost stations. There are two jails in Bírbhúm, one at Surí, and the other (a lock-up) at Rámpur-hát. The daily average jail population in 1881 was 185·16, or 1 person always in jail to every 4294 of the population of the District. These figures are, however, illusory, as they include a large proportion of prisoners sent from the Santál Parganás, where there is no proper jail. Education has made rapid progress of late years. In 1856–57, there were only 3 Government and aided schools in the whole District; by 1872–73, the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 129, attended by 4439 pupils. In addition to these, there were 17 inspected unaided schools, attended by 445 pupils, and about 550 uninspected, with an estimated attendance of more than 7000 more. The total number of pupils attending inspected schools in that year was 4884. By 1881, the total number of Government aided and inspected schools had risen to 613, attended by 11,777 pupils, or 1 to every 67 of the population. The number of schools not inspected by the Department had fallen to 20 in 1881, with 399 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The mean annual temperature of Bírbhúm, according to the latest calculation, is 77·25° F., and the average annual rainfall 56·49 inches. The District has long been famous for its salubrity; but unhappily within the last few years the epidemic fever of Bardwán, after effecting so much devastation in adjoining Districts, has extended to Bírbhúm, causing great mortality, which has resulted in a decrease of the population to the extent of 6·95 per cent. during the nine years between 1872 and 1881. An account of this fever will be found in the article on BARDWAN. The only endemic diseases prevalent in the District are leprosy and elephantiasis; cholera has of late years become more general. [For further information regarding Bírbhúm District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iv. pp. 311 to 457 (Trübner & Co., London, 1876). Also *Report on the District of Bírbhúm*, by Captain W. S. Sherwill, Revenue Surveyor (1855); *Census Report of Bengal* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bírchigáon.—Mountain pass in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; on the route from Almorá by the river Gori and the Untha Dhúra Pass to South-Western Tibet. Lat. 30° 12′ N., long. 80° 17′ E.

Distant 114 miles north-east of Almora. Lies over the skirts of two peaks, with heights of 18,166 and 19,225 feet above the sea respectively; elevation of crest of pass, about 15,000 feet.

Birda Hills.—*See* BARDA HILLS.

Bírganj.—Village and police station in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the Dhápá, a tributary of the Purnabhábá river. Lat. 25° 51′ 30″ N., long. 88° 41′ 40″ E. Small local trade.

Birhar.—*Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the river Gogra, separating it from Basti District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Azamgarh District; and on the south and west by Surharpur, Akbarpur, and Tánda *parganás*. Picturesquely studded with clumps of bamboos, and groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. Area, 221 square miles, of which 122 are cultivated. Of the 387 villages which constitute the *parganá*, no less than 376 form the Birhar estate, held by eight Palwár Rájput proprietors, paying an aggregate Government land revenue of £14,219, out of a total of £15,989. All the villages except 12 are held under *tálukdári* tenure. Population according to the Census of 1881 — Hindus, 121,851; Muhammadans, 15,989: total, 137,840, namely, 69,650 males and 68,190 females. Bráhmans comprise 15 per cent. of the population; Rájputs, 5 per cent.; Korís and Kúrmís, altogether 4 per cent.; other Hindus, 64 per cent.; Muhammadans, 9 per cent. Markets held in 19 villages.

Biriá (*Bairiá*).—Town in Ballia District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 84° 31′ 35″ E., on the high road from Ballia to Chhaprá, and is almost equidistant from the Ganges and Gogra rivers. Population (1881) 9160, namely, 7564 Hindus, and 1596 Muhammadans; area of town site, 82 acres. A small municipal income is realized for police and conservancy purposes, under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. The town is little more than a conglomeration of mud-built houses, traversed from east to west by one good street. The import trade is of no importance, but there are considerable exports of sugar and coarse cloth. The town contains a number of sugar-refineries, the produce of which, together with that of the surrounding villages, is exported to Agra and Calcutta. Weaving looms number 350; the cloth manufactured is exported to Lower Bengal. Shoes and leather work are sent to Ballia, Gházípur, and Dumráon. Market twice a week. The nearest railway station is Raghunáthganj, on the East Indian Railway, 16 miles south of the town, on the opposite side of the Ganges.

Bírkul (*Beercool*).—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the sea-coast in the south of the District, close to the north boundary of Balasor. Lat. 21° 40′ 40″ N., long. 87° 32′ E. Population (18[illegible]) 150. Bírkul has long been known as a pleasant hot-weather ret[illegible]

from Calcutta, and was a favourite resort of Warren Hastings. Proposals have been put forth to make the place a summer sanitarium, but no practical steps have yet been taken to that end. There is a delightful sea-breeze, and the only drawback is scarcity of fresh water, which has to be brought from a considerable distance. Travellers' bungalow. Birkul is distant about 26 miles by road from the sub-divisional station of Kánthí (Contai).

Bírkul.—Embankment in Midnapur District, Bengal; commences at Khádálgobrá village in Bírkul *parganá*, and, running generally parallel with the coast-line of the Bay of Bengal for a distance of 41 miles, terminates at the village of Syámchak in Keorámal *parganá*. This line of embankment is now called the sea-dyke.

Bírnagar (or *Ulá*).—Town in Ránághát Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 14′ 30″ N., long. 88° 36′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 4321, namely, males 1947, and females 2374. A second-class municipality, with an income in 1881 of £273. A festival lasting three days, and attended by 10,000 pilgrims, is held here in June, in honour of the goddess Ulái Chandí, the goddess of cholera, one of the forms of the wife of Siva.

Bírpur.—Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated on the Nepál frontier. Lat. 26° 32′ N., long. 87° 3′ E.; population about 3660. A brisk trade was formerly carried on here; but the place is fast losing its importance, as the merchants, fearing that further inroads of the Kúsí river may carry away their storehouses, are gradually abandoning the village.

Birsilpur (*Barsalpur*).—Town in Jaisalmir (Jeysulmere) State, Rájputána; on the route from Baháwalpur to Báp, 90 miles south-east of the former. Lat. 28° 11′ 20″ N., long. 72° 15′ 5″ E.; population about 2000. The town is said to have been founded in the 2nd century: it contains a small fort, completely commanded by a high sandhill a mile to the south-west.

Birúdankaráyapúram.—The ancient capital of the Chálukya kings, in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. The present village of Bikkavolu (*q.v.*), which occupies the old site, abounds in ruins of the former town.

Birúpá.—River of Cuttack District, Bengal; an offshoot from the left or north bank of the Mahánadí, from which river it branches opposite the town of Cuttack. After flowing north-east for about 15 miles, nearly parallel with the Calcutta road, it receives on its left bank the Gengutí, which, after receiving the waters of the Kelo, again joins the Birúpá. The river afterwards joins the Bráhmaní, and its waters ultimately find their way into the Bay of Bengal by the Dhámrá estuary.

Birúr.—Town and mart in Kadur District, Mysore, on the Bangalore-Shimoga road. Lat. 13° 36′ 10″ N., long. 76° 0′ 40″ E.; population

(1872) 3617, namely, 3254 Hindus, 361 Muhammadans, and 2 Jains; number of houses, 629. Large traffic in cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, grain, and other produce; annual value of transactions, nearly 50 *lákhs* of rupees (£500,000).

Bisáli. — Pass in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 44′ N., long. 75° 41′ E. Formerly of some importance as connecting Mangalore with Seringapatam, but now fallen into disrepair, and practicable for pack-bullocks only. As being the shortest route to Subramani, where a great annual fair is held, the cattle-breeders on the other side use this route. A village of the same name stands at one end of the pass, on the road from Bangalore to Mangalore; lat. 12° 45′ N., long. 75° 45′ E.

Bísalnagar (*Vísnagar* or *Vísalnagar*).—Sub-division of the Kadí District of Baroda, in the Gáekwár's territories; area, 227 square miles; number of towns and villages, 58. Population (1881) 81,842, namely, Hindus, 74,777; Muhammadans, 4203; Jains, 2858; 'others,' 4. In the north and east, the country is bare and treeless, but towards the west and south trees are numerous, and the aspect of the country is more cheerful. The surface soil is light and sandy, and the Sub-division is watered by the Rupen river. At the village of Gothiva is a well which has attained a wide celebrity for the medicinal properties of its water, considered excellent for fever patients.

Bísalnagar.—Town in the Kadí District of the Gáekwár's territories of Baroda, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Bísalnagar Sub-division; on the route from Mhau (Mhow) to Dísá, 220 miles north-west of former, 50 miles south-west of latter, also 14 miles north-east of Unjá, and 11 miles east of Mesána. Lat. 23° 2′ 20″ N., long. 72° 42′ 50″ E.; population (1881) 19,602, namely, 9615 males and 9987 females. Bísalnagar is the original seat of one of the six classes of Nágar Bráhmans, many of whom are now followers of Swámi Náráyan, the religious reformer, whom Bishop Heber met in Gujarát in 1825. There is a considerable transit trade in iron and other heavy goods for Márwár. Manufacture of cotton cloth and copper vessels. Contains the public offices of the District and assistant judges, several *dharm-sálás*, police station, jail, a public garden with a bungalow in it, and two schools.

Bisalpur.—*Tahsíl* of Pilibhít District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 370 square miles, of which 228 are cultivated; population (1881) 179,350; land revenue, £30,544; total revenue, £32,391; rental paid by cultivators, £57,074. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with police stations (*thánás*) at Bisalpur, Balsanda, and Barkhera. Strength of regular police, 37 men; municipal police, 70; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 457.

Bisalpur.—Town in Pilibhít District, North-Western Provinces, a

head-quarters of Bisalpur *tahsíl;* distant 24 miles east from Bareli, and 2 miles east of the river Deoha. Lat. 28° 17′ 35″ N., long. 79° 50′ 33″ E.; population (1881) 8903, namely, 6159 Hindus and 2744 Muhammadans; area, 142 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £333; expenditure, £298; average incidence of taxation, 8¾d. per head of municipal population. The town is skirted with shady groves on all sides except the south. It has the general appearance of an overgrown agricultural village of mud huts, with a few scattered brick buildings. But of late years its centre has been adorned with a neat market-place, in which 4 well-kept metalled roads meet. The official quarter is to the south, where are situated the sub-divisional courts and buildings, police station, school, branch dispensary, and post-office. North of the town is a fine square masonry tank surrounded by *dharmsálás*, temples, and other Hindu buildings. An annual fair for cattle and country produce is held in the village. A weekly market is also held, grain and coarse sugar being the principal staples of trade.

Bisambha (*Bahsúma*).—Town in Mawána *tahsíl*, Meerut District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the Bijnaur road, 23 miles from Meerut town. The population consists for the most part of Játs, Gújars, and Baniyás. Manufacture of saddlery and leather ware of excellent quality. Police station, post-office, and weekly market. Good encamping ground for troops.

Bisauli.—*Tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, and comprising the *parganás* of Satási, Bisauli, and Islámnagar. Area, 343 square miles, of which 289 are cultivated; population (1881) 187,658; land revenue, £21,478; total revenue, £24,060; rental paid by cultivators, £55,737. The *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; strength of regular police, 39 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 437.

Bisauli.—Town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Bisauli *tahsíl*, situated 24 miles north-west of Budáun town, on the high road between Budáun and Chandausí, in lat. 28° 18′ N., long. 78° 59′ E. Population (1881) 4482, namely, 2691 Hindus, 1785 Muhammadans, and 6 Christians. A small municipal revenue, in the shape of a house-tax, is levied for police and conservancy purposes, under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856, amounting to £105 in 1881–82. The town is situated on a commanding spot, overlooking the valley of the Sot, and contains a fine fort built in 1750 by Dundi Khán, lieutenant of the famous Rohillá chief Háfiz Rahmat Khán. A rest-house, mosque, and ruined palace built at the same time still survive. The town contains the ordinary Government buildings, *tahsílí*, *munsifí*, police station, post-office, dispensary, etc. Bisauli declined in importance after the fall of the Rohillá power, but since the

pening of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, trade has begun to evive. Weekly market.

Bisauli.—District and town in Kashmir State, Punjab.—*See* BASOHLI.

Bisáwar.—Town in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the road from Kandauli to Muttra, 6 miles north of the Jumna. Lat. 27° 23′ 30″ N., long. 77° 56′ 30″ E.; area, 57 acres; population (1881) 4774. Originally surrounded by dense jungle, of which scarcely a vestige now remains; partly cleared about 1100 A.D. by Rám Jadun Thákur, whose descendants still hold two-thirds of the village lands. Agricultural centre of little commercial importance.

Bishangarh.—Town in Chhibramau *tahsíl*, Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, situated at the intersection of two roads, 6 miles south-west of Chhibramau town. The town contains a District post-office, village school, and a castle or fort, the residence of the richest landholder of the District. Station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, 518 feet above sea-level. Market twice a week.

Bishanpur Narhan Khás.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated near the west bank of the Little Gandak. Lat. 25° 42′ N., long. 86° 3′ E. Population (1881) 5963, namely, 5794 Hindus and 169 Muhammadans. Contains a stone temple and five brick temples dedicated to Siva, built by the Narhan Bábus, relatives of the Mahárájá of Benares, who have their residence here, and help to support an aided school in the village. Road to Dalsinh-sarái and Ruserá. Two fairs are held during the year.

Bishenpur.—Town in Bánkurá District, Bengal.—*See* BISHNUPUR.

Bíshkhálí.—A river of the Bákarganj Sundarbans, Bengal. Flows from north-east to south-west, from Nayámatí Hát to the sea, a distance of 45 miles; average width in dry season, 1000 yards. Lat. 21° 59′ 45″–22° 34′ 15″ N., long. 90° 2′ 45″–90° 24′ E. Navigable by native boats throughout the year.

Bishnupur.—Sub-division of Bánkurá District, Bengal; formed in 1879, and consisting of the police circles (*thánás*) of Bishnupur, Kotalpur, Indas, and Sonámukhi. Area, 700 square miles; towns and villages, 1504; number of houses, 84,703, of which 75,579 are occupied and 9124 unoccupied. Population (1881) 394,667, namely Hindus, 356,581; Muhammadans, 33,906; Christians, 9; Sonthals, 4154; and 'others,' 17; average density of population, 563·81 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·15; number of persons per village, 564; houses per square mile, 110; persons per occupied house, 5·22. The Sub-division contained in 1883, 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; strength of regular police, 164 men; village watchmen and road police (*chaukídárs* and *ghátwáls*), 1315.

Bishnupur (*Bishenpur*).—The ancient capital of Bánkurá Dist

Bengal, under its native Rájás; now a municipality, and the most populous town in the District; situated a few miles south of the Dhalkisor river. Lat. 23° 4' 40" N., long. 87° 22' 45" E. Population (1881) 18,863, namely, 18,138 Hindus, 639 Muhammadans, and 86 'others.' Municipal income in 1881-82, £416; incidence of municipal taxation, 4½d. per head of population within municipal limits. Bishnupur is one of the principal seats of commerce in Bánkurá District. Chief exports—rice, oil-seeds, lac, cotton and silk cloth, silk cocoons, etc.; imports — English piece-goods, salt, tobacco, spices, cocoa-nuts, pulses, etc. There are several market-places in the town. It contains a large weaving population, and is noted for the manufacture of cotton and silk cloth of fine quality. Besides the usual public offices, there are several schools, a number of Hindu temples, and some Muhammadan mosques. The old military high road from Calcutta to the North-Western Provinces passed through the town. Ancient Bishnupur, if we may put any trust in the native chroniclers, was a magnificent city, 'more beautiful than the beautiful house of Indra in heaven.' It was fortified by a connected line of curtains and bastions, 7 miles in length, with small circular ravelins covering many of the curtains. The citadel lies within the fortifications, and here was situated the palace of the Rájás. The ruins are very curious and interesting. Near the south gateway are the remains of an extensive series of granaries; and inside the fort, which is overgrown with jungle, lies an immense iron gun, 10¼ feet long, the gift, according to tradition, of a deity to one of the Rájás. In the last century, the Rájá of Bishnupur figures in the Company's records as one of the most important of the Hindu nobility of Bengal. In the map to the Abbé Raynal's *History of the East and West Indies* (London edition, 1776), 'Bissenpour' and Calcutta are the only two cities which appear in large letters in the present Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. For further information based on the local records, see my *Annals of Rural Bengal.*

Bison Range (native name, *Pápi-Konda*).—The highest part of the hills which form the northern frontier of Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. Height, about 3000 feet. Situated to the west of the magnificent gorge by which the Godávarí enters the District; the range is remarkable for its fine scenery and abundance of large game; its sides are clothed with luxuriant teak forest.

Bisrámpur.—Village in Sargújá State, Chutiá Nágpur. Lat. 23° 2' N., long. 83° 14' 10" E. The residence of the chief, Mahárájá Indrajit Singh. Contains a school supported by the Rájá and the principal landholders. A weekly market is held in the village, attended only by people living in the immediate neighbourhood.

Bisrámpur Coal-Field. — The name given to an area of coal measure rocks, situated in the eastern portion of the comparatively low-

54

ying ground in the centre of Sargújá State, Chutiá Nágpur. It occupies an area of about 400 square miles, throughout which, except in the river-beds or their immediate neighbourhood, and on a few small hills, no rocks are exposed, a covering of alluvium concealing oil. Good coal exists in abundance, and in a suitable condition for working, but borings (which could alone furnish facts sufficiently trustworthy for estimating the extent and thickness of individual seams, and generally the total amount of coal existing in the field) have not yet been made. It is, however, very probable that when the series of railways it is proposed to construct on and near the Chutiá Nágpur plateau, are completed, that these mines will be extensively worked. A road could be easily made from the Lohárdagá plateau to Sargújá. A detailed account of the field has been given by Mr. V. Ball, from whose paper, quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 225–228, the above information is taken.

Bissau (*Baswá*).—Town in Shaikhawáti District, Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, about 120 miles north-west of Jaipur town. Population (1881) 6546, namely, Hindus, 5121; and Muhammadans, 1425. The town is walled, and possesses a fort of some pretensions; post-office.

Bissemkatak.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 30′ 30″ N., long. 83° 33′ E.; houses, 415; population (1881) 1726, principally retainers and servants of the Tát Rájá, the feudatory at the head of the military force of Jaipur. The only building of any importance is the Rájá's fort, an erection of mud. The inhabitants being suspected of the practice of human sacrifice, this town was included in the proscribed circle of the Meriah Agency in 1851.—*See* JAIPUR.

Bissemkatak.—One of the 7 Kandh *muttas* of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, proscribed by the officers of the Meriah Agency in 1851 as addicted to human sacrifice. It contains 497 villages divided into 8 *sub-muttas* — Kanakaládi, Jigáda, Sogáta, Kojiri, Ambodalu, Bhangoda, Jagdalpur, and Kutragoda. Situated west of Rayabigi, in the highly cultivated country of the Deshya or 'outer' Kandhs (as distinguished from the Kotiya or mountaineer Kandhs, who inhabit only a few villages), with Bissemkatak, the capital of the Tát Rájá, as its chief town. All the villages are under supervision. The *táluk* enjoys considerable trade, exporting grain, tobacco, saffron, mustard and gingelly seeds, and unrefined sugar in exchange for iron, cloths, and salt.

Biswán.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded north by Nighásan, east by Bahraich, south by Bári, and west by Sítápur *tahsíls.* Area, 573 square miles, of which 389 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £31,432. Population (1881) 246,464, namely, Hindus, 208,114; Muhammadans, 38,328; Jains, 22. Number of villages or towns, 508; average density of population, 430 per square

mile. The *tahsil* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Biswán, Tambaur, and Kundri (North). The administrative staff consists of a *tahsildár* and *munsif* at Biswán town, and two honorary Assistant-Commissioners at Mallanpur and Rámpur-Muttra. These officers preside over 2 civil and 3 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 62 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 1049.

Biswán.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Láharpur and Tambaur, on the east by Kundri, on the south by Mahmudábád and Bári, and on the west by Pírnagar and Khairábád. The land in the east of the *parganá* is very low, and much cut up by small streams leading to the Chauka, which marks the boundary line. West of this lies a rich tract of country, always green, owing to the proximity of water to the surface, and bearing fine crops. A high ridge of land, which appears to have formed once the right bank of the Chauka, runs through the *parganá*. The extreme west lies high. Area, 220 square miles, or 140,688 acres, of which 98,721 are cultivated, and 26,220 cultivable but not under tillage. Of the 215 villages composing the *parganá*, 99 are held under *tálukdárí* and 116 under *zamíndári* tenure: 81 villages are owned by Rájput landlords, 57 by Muhammadans, 46 by Káyasths, and 29 by Seths. Population (1881) 105,559; average density of population, 479 per square mile. Bi-weekly markets held in 16 villages.

Biswán.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Biswán *tahsíl* and *parganá*; 21 miles east of Sítápur, on the road to Gonda and Faizábád. Lat. 27° 29′ N., long. 81° 2′ E. Said to have been founded about 500 years ago, by an ascetic named Biswánáth. Population (1881), including Jalálpur, 8148, of whom 4601 are Hindus, principally Bráhmans, or belonging to artisan castes; Muhammadans number 3525, and Jains 22; area of town site, 355 acres. Municipal income in 1880–81, £311, or an average of 9⅛d. per head of municipal population. Daily market; annual sales, about £15,000. Principal buildings—palace, mosque, tomb, and caravanserai, erected by one Shaikh Bári; 21 Muhammadan mosques; 17 Hindu temples. The Government buildings consist of the usual courts, police station, post-office, registration office, school.

Bithar.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; 10 miles south-east of Unáo town, on the road from that place to Rái Bareli. Lat. 26° 25′ 20″ N., long. 80° 36′ 25″ E. The head-quarters of the Ráwat tribe, who formerly owned the whole of the large *parganá* of Harha, in which the village is situated. Population (1881) 3187, namely, Hindus, 3001; and Muhammadans, 186. Ten Sivaite temples; bi-weekly market; Government school.

Bithúr (*Bithaur*).—Town in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the south bank of the Ganges, 12 miles north-west

of Cawnpur City. Lat. 26° 36′ 50″ N., long. 80° 19′ E.; population (1881) 6685, namely, 5970 Hindus and 715 Muhammadans; area of town site, 217 acres. A small municipal revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Picturesque front facing the river, adorned by *gháts* or bathing steps, temples, and handsome residences. The principal *ghát*, built by Rájá Tikáit Rái, minister of Ghází-ud-dín Haidar, Nawáb of Oudh, with an imposing Saracenic arcade on its upper platform, is known as the Bráhma *ghát*, being sacred to that god; and a bathing fair is held there on the full moon in November. Bájí Ráo, the last of the Peshwás, was banished to Bithúr, and had extensive palaces in the town. His adopted son, Dandhu Panth, better known as the Náná Sáhib, was the instigator of the massacre at CAWNPUR. The town was captured by Havelock's force on the 19th of July 1857, when the Náná's palaces were utterly destroyed; but he himself succeeded in making good his escape. On the 16th of August, after Havelock's first unsuccessful attempt to reach Lucknow, Bithúr was once more retaken, and never again lost. Its population and importance have greatly declined since the extinction of its local court. Large numbers of Bráhmans reside in the town, and superintend the bathing festivals. A branch of the Ganges Canal is in course of construction to Bithúr.

Bitraganta.—Village in the Kaváli *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. The annual fair held here in honour of Venketeswaraswámí attracts 4000 persons. Weaving forms the chief industry of the place. Population (1881) 1015, namely, 995 Hindus and 20 Muhammadans.

Black Pagoda.—Ruined temple in Purí District, Orissa.—*See* KANARAK.

Blue Mountain.—Principal peak (7100 feet high) in the Yoma range, at the north-west of Akyab District, British Burma, lat. 22° 37′ N., and long. 93° 10′ E.

Boálmárí.—Trading village in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the Bárásia river. Lat. 23° 23′ N., long. 89° 48′ 30″ E. Chief trade—rice, piece-goods, country cloth, cotton twist and yarn, jute, and tobacco. The resident population of the village in 1881 was returned at only 111, but the weekly market on Sundays is attended by a large number of non-residents.

Bobbili.—An estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 22′ to 18° 46′ N., long. 83° 10′ to 83° 20′ E.; area, 227 square miles, containing 178 villages, with 29,023 houses, and (1881) 139,974 inhabitants, almost all Hindus: males, 69,666; females, 70,308. Surrounded by the British *táluks* of Chipúrpalle, Vizianágaram, Sálúr, Palkonda, and Bobbili. It consists of 3 *parganás*, Bobbili, Rájam, and Kávite, and yields to its owner a revenue of £37,500 per annum. (

this, £8977 is paid to Government as tribute or *peshkash.* This estate is one of the most ancient in the Presidency, and possesses an interesting history. When, in 1652, Sher Muhammad Khán, the Nawáb of CHICACOLE, entered the District, there followed in his train two rivals—the one Peddaráyudu, the ancestor of the present chief of Bobbili, the other the ancestor of the Vizianágaram family; and from this time dates the rivalry between the two houses. Peddaráyudu soon after received, in reward for gallantry, the estate of Rájam, where he built a fort, naming it Bobbili (the royal tiger), in honour of his patron's designation, Sher (tiger). This estate bordered on Vizianágaram, and the ill-feeling between the chiefs was fomented by constant embroilment. In 1756, the turbulence of the Poligars called for measures of repression, and M. Bussy marched with a European force to restore order. On his reaching Vizianágaram, the Rájá assured him that the chief of Bobbili was the instigator of all disturbances, and to testify his own loyalty, joined the French with a force of 11,000 men to assist in crushing his rival. Before attacking him, Bussy offered the chief a pardon for the past, and lands of equal value elsewhere, if he would abandon his ancestral estate; but the offer was refused.

The attack which followed on the fort at Bobbili is one of the most memorable in Franco-Indian history. At daybreak, the field-pieces began to play on the mud defences, practicable breaches were at once made, and the assault sounded. After four hours' desperate hand-to-hand fighting, Bussy called off his men to allow the cannon to widen the breaches. A second assault was then ordered, but with no better results, for not a man had gained footing within the ramparts, when, five hours later, Bussy again withdrew the storming party to repeat the argument of artillery. The defenders now recognised their desperate position, and collecting their wives and families, put them to death, and returned to their posts. The assault soon recommenced; and when at sunset Bussy entered the fort as victor with the remnant of his army, it was only because every man of the garrison was dead or desperately wounded. An old man, however, crept from a hut, and leading a child to Bussy, presented him as the son of the dead chief. Four other men had preserved their lives; and two nights later, when the Vizianágaram camp was buried in sleep, they crept into the Rájá's tent, and before the sentries had discovered and shot down the assassins, they had stabbed the Rájá to death with thirty-two wounds.

The child Chinna Ranga Ráo, saved from the slaughter, was invested by Bussy with the chiefship of the lands that had been offered to his father; but before he attained his majority, his uncle regained by force of arms the former estate of Rájam. At last the Vizianágaram family compromised with their rivals, and leased to them the Kávite and Rájam *parganás.* The old feud, however, again broke out, and the

bbili chief fled into the Nizám's country. But in 1794, when the zianágaram estate was dismembered, Chinna Ranga Ráo was restored the British to his father's domains, and in 1801 a permanent settlement was concluded with his son at an annual tribute of £9000. Since hen the peace of the estate has been undisturbed.

Bobbili.—Town in the Bobbili estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 34′ N., long. 83° 25′ E.; houses, 3010; population (1881) 14,946, namely, 14,545 Hindus, 329 Muhammadans, 38 Christians, and 34 'others.' Situated about 70 miles north-west of Vizagapatam. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it possesses a sub-magistrate's court, a sub-registrar's office, dispensary, school, etc. A fortified enclosure in the centre of the town surrounds the temple and the residence of the chief.—*See* BOBBILI ESTATE, *supra*.

Bod.—The most westerly of the Tributary States of Orissa, lying between 20° 13′ and 20° 53′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 36′ 45″ and 84° 50′ E. long.; area, including the KANDH-MALS (under British administration), 2064 square miles; population (1881) 130,103. The State is bounded on the north by the Mahánadí river, separating it from Sonpur State in the Central Provinces, and from Athmallik State; on the east by Daspallá; on the south by the Madras States of Goomsur (Gumsar) and Kimidi; and on the west by Patná and Sonpur States in the Central Provinces, from which it is separated by the Tel river. Bod is under the supervision of the Commissioner of Cuttack and the Government of Bengal. To the south of Bod proper, are the Kandh Hills, now under British management, but formerly feudatory to the Bod Rájá. The tract comprising the Kandh-máls consists of a broken plateau intersected by ridges of low hills, the last refuge of the Kandh race. The principal hills in the State are—Bondigárá on the southern border, 3308 feet high; Bankomundí, 2080 feet; and Siánángá, 1917 feet.

The population of Bod, including the Kandh-máls, numbered in 1881, 130,103, living in 1741 villages and 16,409 houses; number of males 66,754, females 63,349; average density of population per square mile, 63; persons per village, 74; persons per house, 7·9. Classified according to religion, the Census thus divides the population Hindus, 93,011; Muhammadans, 73; Christian, 1; aboriginal tribes 37,018. Separate details of the population, etc., of the Kandh-mál will be found in the article on that tract. The following are the figure for Bod proper without the Kandh-máls. Total population, 71,144, livin in 856 villages and 14,242 houses; number of males 36,723, femal 34,421; persons per village, 83; persons per house, 5. Classifi according to religion, the Census thus divides the population: Hind 71,075; and Muhammadans, 69. There is a considerable aborigi population in Bod, but owing to a different system of classificat

between the Census of 1872 and 1881, only those who still cling to their ancient religion have been returned by the last Census as aborigines, and in Bod proper they are included among the Hindus.

The Mahánadí, which forms the northern boundary of the State, and the Tel, which borders it on the west, afford excellent facilities for water carriage; but except a little *sál* timber, none of the produce of the country is exported. Weekly markets are held at eight villages, the principal commodities sold being coarse rice, oil-seeds, and jungle products. The largest and most important village, and the residence of the Rájá, is Bod (lat. 29° 50′ 20″ N., long. 84° 21′ 41″ E.), in the north of the State on the right bank of the Mahánadí, 190 miles from the sea. The only other village of any size is Jagatigarh.

The State yields an estimated revenue of £2400 a year to its chief; the tribute to the British Government is £80. The reigning family claims an uninterrupted descent from a stranger who founded the petty principality about a thousand years ago; they are Rájputs of the Solar race. The Rájá's militia in Bod proper consists of 22 men, and his police force is of the same strength. He maintains a school. A post-office has recently been established.

Bodá.—An extensive *zamíndárí* (estate) belonging to the Rájá of Kuch Behar State, Bengal. Area, 475 square miles; number of villages, 288; number of houses, 37,111. Population (1881) 194,915, of whom 100,278 are males and 94,637 females. Average density of population, 410 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·6; houses per square mile, 78; persons per village, 676; persons per house, 5·2. Chief town, with revenue court of the Rájá, Bodá; lat. 26° 12′ N., long. 88° 38′ E.

Bodánoness.—Petty State of Und-Sarviya District, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of one village, with one independent tribute-payer. Lat. 21° 24′ 0″ N., long. 71° 50′ 0″ E.; estimated revenue (1881) £105, of which £10 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár, and 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bodhan.—Village and place of pilgrimage in the Mándvi Subdivision, Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 20′ N., long. 73° 7′ E.; population (1872) 3305. No later return of population is available. The fair is held when the planet Jupiter enters the constellation of the Lion, an event which happens every twelve years; about 2000 people attend, the majority being from Surat, Broach, and Ahmadábád Districts, and from Baroda and Rájpipla territory. The last fair was held in September 1872. The temple contains the image of Gautameshwar Máhadeo, in whose honour the fair is held. The temple holds lands free of rent.

Bodh Gayá.—*See* BUDDH GAYA.

Bodináyakanúr.—Estate in Madúra District, Madras Presidency.

Area, 98 square miles, containing 21 villages and hamlets, with 6509 houses, and (1871) 34,497 inhabitants. Later information is not available. Situated in the valley between the Travancore and Paláni ranges, watered by the Teni river. This estate was one of the original 72 Naiakais Palaiyam of Madúra, the family having emigrated from Gooty (Gúti) in 1336 A.D. It was resumed by Haidar Ali in 1776, and after an interval of semi-independence, again reduced by Tipú. The Rájá of Travancore subsequently seized the estate, but in 1793 the Bodináyakanúr chief recovered possession. When, in 1795, the Company's officers proceeded to the settlement of the District, they were resisted by the chief of Bodináyakanúr, and the party was fired upon. It was one of the largest of the 24 Palaiyams then settled, containing 30 villages, and yielding about £7000 per annum. Annual tribute paid to Government, £1534.

Bodináyakanúr.—Town in Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 0′ 50″ N., long. 77° 25′ 0″ E.; population (1881) 14,759, namely, 13,914 Hindus, 619 Muhammadans, and 226 Christians; houses, 2508. Situated 65 miles west of Madúra. The head-quarters (*kasbá*) of a large estate of the same name.

Bodwad (*Botáwad*).—Town in the Bhusáwal Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 52′ 15″ N., long. 76° 2′ 0″ E. Situated on the main road from Aurangábád to Burhánpur, 80 miles north-east of Aurangábád, and 2 miles south of the Nárgám station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 5282, namely, Hindus, 4307; Muhammadans, 847; Jains, 73; and 'others,' 55. Area of town site, 60 acres. Important trade in cotton, linseed, and other oil-seeds; post-office. The houses are for the most part poor and badly built, and the streets narrow, crooked, and dirty. Bodwad was once a place of some consequence, and the ruined remains of an old fort, city gateways, and an old reservoir still exist.

Boggerú.—River in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Rising among the Gháts at Boggu Venkátapuram, it drains the country west and south of the Durgám, and flowing through Atmakúr, it joins the Pennér at Sangám, where the two rivers have overspread a considerable tract with alluvial deposits. The Atmakúr *táluk* to some extent, and the Udayagiri *táluk* almost entirely, depend upon the Boggerú for irrigation.

Bogoola.—Village in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* BAGULA.

Bogra (*Bagurá*).—District occupying the east central portion of the Rájsháhí Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 24° 32′ 15″ and 25° 18′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 54′ 1… and 89° 48′ 0″ E. long., its eastern boundary being roughly formed by the main channel of the Brahmaputra; area, 1498 square miles

population, according to the Census of 1881, 734,358 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at BOGRA town on the Karatoyá river.

Physical Aspects.—The District presents the usual appearance of an alluvial tract, consisting of one level plain, seamed with river-beds and studded with marshes. It naturally divides into two portions of unequal size, an eastern tract forming part of the valley of the Brahmaputra, and closely resembling the country in Maimansingh on the opposite bank; and a western and larger portion, which merges into the undulating clay lands of Dinájpur. Both these tracts are profoundly modified by the fluvial action of the great streams which flow through or over them; but the boundary between the two constitutes an important landmark in the geographical system of Bengal. The soil of the Brahmaputra valley is pure alluvion of a whitish colour, locally called *pali*, the recent deposit of the river floods. In the western tract the soil is a stiff clay of a reddish colour, known as *khiár*, which rests upon a lower stratum of sand; the country is generally above flood-level, and much overgrown with scrub jungle. In this region are situated the peculiar plots of mulberry-land, which are raised by trenching and embankment above the danger of inundation.

The river system is constituted by the numerous channels of the great river of Rangpur, which is variously known as the TISTA or Atrái. The BRAHMAPUTRA itself, locally termed the Dáokobá or Hatchet-cut, only fringes the eastern frontier of the District as far as the junction of the MANAS. The other rivers of the District are the JAMUNA, NAGAR, KARATOYA or PHULJUR, BANGALI, and MANAS. Most of these intermingle with one another by cross streams; and they fall ultimately either into the Atrái, or directly into the Brahmaputra. They are all portions of the same drainage system, and their comparative importance is so variable that it would be useless to describe the course of any particular channel in any given year. Historically, the Karatoyá was the main river which brought down towards the Ganges the great volume of Tístá water, before the disastrous floods of 1787. The width of its former bed is still pointed out, and numerous local traditions bear witness to its early importance. At present, it is one of the minor rivers of the District, and but little used for navigation. There are no lakes in Bogra, but marshes are numerous, especially in the east and south of the District, where the greater part of the country is a network of marshes interlacing in and out of the District. Most of these dry up from the end of January till the rains, but many are always flooded. Nothing has been done to drain any of these swamps, but several are silting up. All except the deepest are largely utilized for the cultivation of the long-stemmed variety of rice, which is generally sown from transplanted seedlings at the beginning of the rains, and grows with the rise of the water. The Collector of the

District reported in 1873 that this rice 'rises with the floods, however deep they may be. It is almost impossible to drown it. It grows as high as 23 feet, and can bear submersion for two or three weeks together without suffering much injury.' Large forests formerly existed in this District, but they have in most cases been ruthlessly cut down, a few large patches remaining only in the police divisions of Pánchbibi and Sherpur. At the same time, the country is still fairly wooded, and many valuable forest trees are indigenous to it. The jungle products consist of various dyes, and beeswax. Ample pasture ground is found along the older sandy banks or *chars* of the Brahmaputra, which are always covered with coarse grass, and in places with the fine *dúb* grass. These latter lands are left uncultivated, not in consequence of any infertility, but from fear of floods. The larger sorts of game in the District are the tiger, leopard, buffalo, deer, and wild pig. Small game, such as hares, pea-fowl, snipe, quail, ortolan, wild geese, wild duck, teal, and pigeons, is plentiful. Fish abound, being represented principally by the perch, carp, siluroid, and herring families; the fisheries form valuable properties.

History.—Bográ has no political history of its own. The District was first formed in 1821, out of certain *thánás* or police divisions taken from Rájsháhí, Dinájpur, and Rangpur. It was found necessary at that time to provide additional facilities for the administration of criminal justice in these outlying tracts, which could not be properly supervised from the head-quarters of their several Districts. This region, also, was then rising into notice as a remunerative field for European enterprise, in the form of indigo-planting and silk-winding. For these reasons, a Joint-Magistrate was stationed at Bográ town, in whom only criminal jurisdiction was vested. The duties of revenue collection, together with the title of Deputy-Collector, were added in 1832; but it was not till 1859 that Bográ was erected into an independent District with a Magistrate-Collector of its own. Even at the present day, traces may be found of the gradual growth of the several administrations, and much perplexity still exists with regard to the boundaries of the fiscal and magisterial areas. In accordance with a principle which has long lost its original utility, large estates were permitted, on removal from the criminal supervision of their old Districts, to continue to pay revenue into the parent treasury. The fiscal jurisdiction thus broken up has never been again reunited under a single authority. Again, considerable portions of Bográ were surveyed with the neighbouring Districts to which they had been once attached; and the numerous series of papers, which guarantee the efficiency of local administration, lie scattered at Rámpur Beauleah, Nasírábád, and Dinájpur. In addition to these fundamental causes of confusion, Bográ has experienced its full share of those frequent re

fications of the executive frontier, which so greatly destroy the value of all statistical comparisons throughout Bengal.

The historical interest of the District centres round MAHASTHAN GARH, and the town of SHERPUR. The former place is now a great mound of earth, bounded on one side by the dwindling stream of the Karatoyá, and strewn with bricks and a few carvings in stone. But when the Karatoyá was a great river, Mahásthán was the capital of an early Hindu dynasty, of which numerous traditions still live in the memories of the people. In later times it has become a Muhammadan place of pilgrimage, being associated with the name of Sháh Sultán, a *fakír* who figures prominently in the story of the Musalmán conquest. Sherpur town represents a more trustworthy epoch in Bengal history. It is mentioned by the Mughal chroniclers of the 16th century, and appears under the disguise of 'Ceerpoor Mirts' in the map of Bengal by Von den Broucke, the Dutch Governor of India in 1660. These notices it owed to its importance as a frontier post of the Muhammadans, previous to the establishment of the Nawábs of Dacca. It is now the residence of three Bráhman families, who rank among the wealthiest landholders in the district.

Population.—Various early estimates of the number of the population are extant, but it is not known that any of them were based upon trustworthy principles. The most plausible conjecture places the total at 900,000 souls, at a time when the District was larger by about one-third than it is now. The Census of 1872, with the District area the same as at present, disclosed a population of 689,467 persons. The latest enumeration, in 1881, returned the inhabitants of the District at 734,358, showing an increase of 44,891, or 6·5 per cent., in the nine years between 1872 and 1881. Area of District, 1498 square miles; number of villages, 4202; number of houses, 103,643, of which 99,473 were occupied and 4170 unoccupied. Average density of population, 490·23 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·81; houses per square mile, 69·19; persons per village, 175; persons per occupied house, 7·38. Divided according to sex, the males numbered 372,677, and the females 361,681. Classified according to religion, the Muhammadans numbered 593,411, or 80·80 per cent. of the entire population; Hindus 140,860, or 19·18 per cent.; Jains, 54; Buddhists, 2; Christians, 27; and 'others,' 4. It was one of the surprises revealed by the first regular Census of the District in 1872, that the Musalmáns constitute more than four-fifths of the inhabitants of the District. There can be no doubt that in Bográ, as throughout the rest of the Brahmaputra valley, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority willingly adopted the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining outcastes beyond the pale of Hinduism. As elsewhere throughout India, almost the

entire Muhammadan population belong to the Hanafi sect of Sunnís. A certain proportion of them are said to be indoctrinated with the fanaticism of the reformed Faraizí sect; and so late as 1871. there was a State prosecution for Wahábí disaffection. The Musalmán fairs and places of pilgrimage are well attended, especially the ceremonies connected with the name of Ghází Miyán. Of the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the three cognate tribes of Koch, Páli, and Rájbansí make up a total of 19,955 souls; and it is known that many of the Muhammadans belong to the same ethnical stock. Among the Hindus proper, Bráhmans number 4614; Rájputs, 372; Káyasths, 3759; and Baniyás, 7486. The most numerous caste is the Kaibartta, 15,566 members; and next, the Chandál, 9892; the Hari, 6999; and the Sunrí, with 6688. The boating and fishing castes collectively are strongly represented. Hindus not recognising caste are returned at 11,314, of whom 11,101 are set down as Vaishnavs. The Brahma Samáj is represented by a few followers in Bogra town, who assemble weekly in a meeting-house erected for the purpose. The occupations of the male inhabitants are classified in the Census report under one of the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and learned professions, 6295; (2) domestic servants, keepers of lodging-houses, etc., 3583; (3) commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 6412; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 186,118; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 22,512; (6) indefinite and unproductive (comprising 10,137 labourers, 27 men of rank and property without occupation, and 137,593 unspecified), 147,757. Emigration from the District is unknown.

The population is almost entirely rural, and Bogra town, with 6179 souls, is the only place with a population exceeding 5000. No tendency is observed on the part of the people towards urbar life, but rather the reverse. Of the 4202 villages, 3003 are returned a containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 969 from two to fiv hundred; 194 from five hundred to a thousand; 32 from one to tw thousand; 2 from two to three thousand; 1 from three to fi thousand; and 1 from five to ten thousand.

The material condition of the people is said to have very much improv of late years, in consequence of the enhancement of prices of agricultu produce. This is due principally to better means of communicati with the great commercial centres of Calcutta and Dacca, since opening of the Eastern Bengal and Northern Bengal State Railw The increased demand for fine rice has done much to enrich inhabitants of the western portion of the District, whilst the r growth of the jute trade has done even more for those in the eas portion. The people generally are advancing in wealth, social

respect and education; and the number of those seriously in debt, that is, in the hands of the rice lender, is few. The Collector of the District in 1872-73, while reporting on the steadily increasing prosperity of the people, remarked: 'I learn, however, that in the northern parts of the District, a small section of the population are the victims of the merciless system of usury known as *adhiári*, which, literally translated, means 50 per cent. A peasant borrows a *maund* of rice, undertaking to pay a *maund* and a half in the following year. If he fails, the *maund* and a half is treated as a debt bearing compound interest. In course of time he assigns the produce of his holding to the creditor, and lives on such loans as it suits the latter to advance him until he becomes a mere serf.'

Agriculture, etc.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District, being especially predominant in the clay tract west of the Karatoyá. The *áman* or winter rice crop, grown on low lands, is estimated to furnish 65 per cent. of the total food-supply; and the *áus* or early crop, grown on high lands, about 30 per cent. In the Brahmaputra valley, oil-seeds are largely grown, and the cultivation of jute is on the increase. In 1872, the total area under jute was nearly 50,000 acres, chiefly in the police division Sháriákándí. The cultivation of sugar-cane has fallen off since the early years of the present century. Leguminous plants and pulses are usually grown as a second crop in the east of the District after the rice harvest. The other crops, which include wheat, barley, *gánjá*, and mulberry, are insignificant. The principle of the rotation of crops is not practised, but fields are occasionally allowed to lie waste, and jute is never sown on the same land for more than three consecutive years. There is a considerable extent of waste land in most parts of the District, which is now in process of being reclaimed by hillmen from Chutiá Nágpur. River and tank water are both largely taken advantage of for irrigation purposes in the higher lands in the west of the District; but in the eastern tracts, the annual floods of the Brahmaputra afford sufficient moisture to the soil, even when the rainfall is scanty. The rate of rent for rice land varies from 1s. 6d. to 12s. per acre. Special crops, such as mulberry, *gánjá*, and *pán*, pay exceptional rates. The total amount received by the *zamíndárs* under the name of rent is almost universally augmented by the exaction of *ábwábs* or customary cesses. There is little that is peculiar in the land tenures of Bográ. At the time of the Permanent Settlement the greater part of the District was in the hands of three families, the Rájá of Dinájpur, the Rájá of Nattor, and the Muhammadan *zamíndár* of Silbarsá. Considerable portions have at one time or another been severed from the revenue-paying estates, and are now held as *lákhiráj*. Old Musalmán endowments of this kind are particularly numerous.

The ordinary rates of wages, and also the prices of food-grains, have approximately doubled of late. In 1871, coolies and agricultural day-labourers received a little more than 4d. a day; smiths and carpenters, about 8d. In the same year, common rice sold at 4s. per cwt. In 1881, as the result of an unusually abundant harvest, the price of common rice fell to 3s. 4d. a cwt., or about 3s. a cwt. below the average of the three previous years. The highest price reached by rice during the scarcity of 1874 was 17s. per cwt., which was recorded in the month of July.

Bográ is liable, to some extent, to the calamity of drought; but a general destruction of the crops from floods is unknown. In 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, the local supply fell short, and not a little distress was caused by the concurrent increase of the exports to other Districts. In 1874, the failure of the rice crop was more severe, but actual suffering was anticipated by the prompt intervention of Government. More than 8000 tons of food-grain were imported from Calcutta and Goálandá; and £50,000 in all was expended in relief. Since the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway, and the completion of a system of minor roads to serve as feeders, every part of Bográ is now sufficiently provided with means of communication to prevent a local scarcity from intensifying into famine.

Manufactures, etc.—The growth and preparation of indigo, which formerly attracted a large amount of European capital, has now entirely disappeared from the District. The industry of silk-spinning still lingers in the neighbourhood of Bográ town, but most of the other filatures have been closed, being unable to compete with the Chinese and Mediterranean producers. The manufacture of a coarse paper from jute is conducted in a few villages. The East India Company is said to have established its silk factories at Sherpur and Nandápárá in this District, in the first decade of this century, and to have annually distributed £50,000 in the shape of advances to the rearers of cocoons. The Company abandoned manufacture on its own account in 1834.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. The chief exports are—rice, jute, mustard-seed, sugar, hides, tobacco, and *gánjá*. The imports are—salt, piece-goods, pulses, spices, brass ware, cocoa-nuts, and betel-nuts. The principal marts are—Hillí, Damdamá, Jamálganj, Bálubhárá, Naugáon, and Dubálhátí, on the Jamuná river; Gobindganj, Fakírganj, Gumániganj, Síbganj, Sultánganj, and Sherpur, on the Karatoyá; Dhúpchánchiá on the Nágar. Some of these are situated just beyond the District boundaries, but the business of all is chiefly concerned with Bográ produce. According to the registration returns for the year 1876–77 (the latest date for which I have information), the total exports from the District were valued at £247,479; the imports at £85,990. In addition, it is supposed th

a large portion of the Bográ trade, especially in the case of imports, is credited to the neighbouring Districts of Pabná and Rájsháhí. The chief exports were—rice, 584,000 *maunds*, and paddy, 46,100 *maunds*, valued together at £121,400; jute, 266,900 *maunds*, valued at £80,070. The imports comprised piece-goods (£35,190) and salt (39,800 *maunds*, valued at £19,900). The single mart of Hillí, which deals almost exclusively with Calcutta and Chandarnagar, despatched just one-third in value of the exports, including 359,600 *maunds* of rice. Next come Dhúpchánchiá, with an export of 62,300 *maunds* of rice; Mathurápárá, which exported 51,000 *maunds* of jute; Díwántolá, 42,500 *maunds*; Maurechar, 36,900 *maunds*; Gosáinbárí, 28,300 *maunds*. Of the imports of piece-goods, Bográ town alone received £23,680. In 1881, the export of rice from Bogra District amounted to 1,400,000 *maunds*.

The Northern Bengal State Railway runs through Bográ District for a distance of 39 miles. Advantage was taken of the famine relief operations in 1874 to construct a system of minor roads to serve as feeders to the railway. These roads, which have an average width of 16 feet, are 15 in number, with an aggregate length of 137 miles. The total cost was about £30,000. Not a single road in the District is metalled. The chief means of communication are the natural water-courses, by which every village can be approached during the rainy season.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Bográ District amounted to £60,639, towards which the land-tax contributed £43,981, or 70 per cent.; the net expenditnre was £14,857, or about one-quarter of the revenue. In 1881–82, the total revenue amounted to £64,238, of which £46,328, or 72·12 per cent., was derived from the land revenue. In the same year there was one covenanted officer stationed in the District, 5 magisterial courts open, and three Benches of 15 honorary magistrates. For police purposes the District is divided into 8 *thánás* or police circles, with three outposts. In 1881, the regular police force numbered 230 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £4650. In addition, there was a municipal police of 32 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £286, and a rural police or village watch of 1864 men, maintained by the villagers and landholders. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2126 officers and men, giving 1 man to every ·70 square mile of area, or to every 345 in the population. The District jail at Bográ town contained in 1881 a daily average of 184 prisoners.

Education has widely spread of recent years, chiefly owing to the changes by which grants-in-aid were assigned, first to the middle-class vernacular schools, and afterwards to the village schools or *páthsálás*.

In 1856, there were only 8 inspected schools in the District, attended by 593 pupils. In 1870, the numbers had increased to 29 schools and 1221 pupils; and in 1881–82, to 127, with 3540 pupils. This is exclusive of uninspected indigenous schools; and the Census Report in 1881 returned 14,795 boys and 1044 girls as under instruction, besides 26,405 other males and 1951 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The higher class English school at Bográ town was attended in 1881–82 by 223 pupils.

The sub-divisional system has not been extended to Bográ District. There are 32 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with an aggregate of 656 revenue-paying estates. In 1881, there were 2 civil judges and 5 stipendiary magistrates. The two municipalities of Bográ town and Sherpur contain together a total population of 10,175. In 1881–82, their aggregate municipal income was £832, the average rate of taxation being 1s. 3¾d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bográ is somewhat less hot than that of the Districts farther to the west. It has been observed that the wind, when blowing from the east, is perceptibly cooled by passing over the wide stream of the Brahmaputra. The average mean temperature is 78·77° F. The average annual rainfall for a period of 20 years ending in 1881, was 80·22 inches; but in 1873, only 36·64 inches fell, a deficiency which caused the scarcity of the following year. In 1881, the rainfall was 70·74 inches, or 9·48 inches below the average.

The prevailing diseases are fevers and bowel complaints of various kinds. Cholera is said to be endemic towards the south-west of the District, which is not far from the Chalan *bíl;* and this disease occasionally breaks out with extreme epidemic severity. Small-pox has been checked in recent years by the increasing popularity of vaccination, especially among the Muhammadans. Goitre is reported to be prevalent in the tract where jute is grown and steeped. The vital statistics show a registered number of 15,349 deaths in 1881, or a rate of 24·01 per thousand. There were, in 1882, three charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 8119 in-door and out-door patients were treated during the year. [For further particulars regarding Bográ District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. viii. pp. 129 to 317 (Trübner & Co., London, 1876); see also the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881, and the *Annual Provincial Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bográ (*Bagurá*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Bográ District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Karatoyá river. Lat. 24° 50′ 45″ N., long. 89° 25′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 6179, namely, 2667 Hindus, 3463 Muhammadans, and 49 'others.' Municipal income in 1881–82, £483; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 6¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town

no interesting buildings; there are two markets, known as the Kálitalá and Málthinagar *háts*.

Bokáro.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; lies between 23° 40′ and 23° 50′ N. lat., and between 85° 30′ and 86° 10′ E. long., covering an area of 220 square miles; greatest length from east to west, 40 miles; maximum breadth from north to south, 6½ miles. It takes its name from the river Bokáro, which flows through the field for a distance of 27 miles. The coal series represented are the Tálcher, Dámodar, and Pánchet; the amount of available fuel has been estimated at 1500 millions of tons. Coal has of late years been regularly cut near the villages of Charhí, Phusro, Tapin-Pindra, and Bangahrá, to supply fuel for burning bricks in Hazáribágh, and some has been carted to Gayá. Bokáro stands third in order of importance among the fields of the Dámodar valley which have already been examined and reported on.

Bolan.—Pass leading over the Brahuí Mountains, from the plains of Kachhi to the highlands of Sarawán and Balúchistán. It commences in lat. 29° 30′ N., long. 67° 40′ E., about 5 miles north-west of Dádar, and rises in a succession of narrow valleys between high ranges, having a north-westerly course, until it culminates in a broad plain called the Dasht-i-Bedaulat. The total length of the pass is about 60 miles; elevation of the top, about 5800 feet; average ascent, 90 feet in the mile. From the foot of the pass the halting-places are—Khundiláni, 7 miles south; Kirta, 5 miles; Bibi-Náni, 13½ miles; Ab-i-gum, 14 miles; Sar-i-Bolan, 6 miles; and from Sar-i-Bolan to the top of the pass, Dasht-i-Bedaulat, the distance is 11¾ miles. The Bolan river, a hill torrent rising beyond Sar-i-Bolan, flows through the whole length of the pass, and is frequently crossed in the first march from the foot. This torrent is, like all mountain streams, subject to sudden floods. In 1841, a British detachment was lost with its baggage in such a flood. When the river is not swollen, however, artillery can be conveyed through without any serious difficulty; and the pass is consequently of great importance from a military point of view. In 1839, a Bengal column with its artillery, consisting of 8-inch mortars, 24-pound howitzers, and 18-pounder guns, went through the Bolan in six days. At two principal points the pass is very narrow—namely, just above Khundiláni, and beyond Sar-i-Bolan; at these places it might be held by a very small force against immensely superior numbers. At the first-mentioned point, the cliffs of conglomerate on either side rise to a height of from 400 to 800 feet, and when the river is in flood, the stream completely fills the narrow gorge; at the other point, the rocks are of limestone, and the passage is so narrow that only three or four men can ride abreast. The temperature in the pass during May is very high; water is abundant and good, but firewood is scarcely pro-

curable. There is little or no cultivation owing to the stony nature of the ground, and the route being infested by the Marri and Kákár tribes of Balúchis and Patháns, who, until very recently, lived principally by plundering caravans proceeding from Khorasán to Sind, and deterred peaceably-disposed tribes from settling in the valleys. From Bíbi-Náni a mountain road leads to Khelát, *viâ* Barádi, Rodbar, Nurmah Takhi, and Kishan; distance, 110 miles. Distance from top of pass to Quetta, 25 miles; road good.

Boláram.—Military cantonment in Haidarábád (Hyderábád), the Nizám's Dominions; situated in lat. 17° 32′ N., long. 78° 34′ E., on a piece of high ground 6 or 8 miles in circumference, having on its summit an open plain extending east of the cantonment. Elevation above sea, 1890 feet; distance from Haidarábád (Hyderábád), 11 miles north, and from Sikandarábád (Secunderábád), 6 miles north. The troops stationed here belong to the Haidarábád Contingent. The place is healthy. Several kinds of English vegetables and fruits thrive well. A disturbance occurred among the men of one of the Nizám's cavalry regiments stationed here in 1855, and Brigadier Colin Mackenzie was severely wounded.

Bolpur.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; distance from Calcutta (Howrah), 99 miles. Since the opening of the railway, the village has risen rapidly in importance, and is now a considerable place of trade.

Bolúndra.—Petty State in the Máhi Kántha Agency, Bombay Presidency. The Thákur is a Rewar Rájput, descended from a younger branch of the Ranásan family; he has no *sanad* authorizing adoption; the family follows the rule of primogeniture. The first Thákur of Bolúndra obtained the estate as a maintenance in 1724 A.D. The land under cultivation is estimated at 5200 *bíghas*. Population (1881) 875; revenue, £61; tribute of about £14 is paid to the Mahárájá of Edar.

Bomanahilli.—Village in Belláry District, Madras Presidency, which gives its name to a great irrigational project, designed—by the construction of a reservoir and channels—to irrigate about 64,000 acres of land.

Bombadi.—Township in British Burma.—*See* BUMAWADI.

Bombay Presidency.—Bombay, the Western Presidency of British India, is divided into four revenue Divisions and twenty-four British Districts. It also includes numerous Native States, under the protection of Her Majesty's Indian Government. The territory thus composed extends from 13° 53′ to 28° 45′ N. lat., and from 66° 40′ to 76° 30′ E. long. The British Districts, including Sind, contain a total area of 124,123 square miles, and a total population (according to the Census of 1881) of 16,489,274 souls; the Native States under the Bombay

Government, excluding Baroda, cover an additional area estimated at 73,753 square miles, with a population of 6,941,249 souls; grand total area, 197,876 square miles; grand total population, 23,430,523 souls. The State of Baroda, with an estimated area of 8570 square miles, and a population of 2,185,005 souls, although in direct subordination to the Supreme Government of India, is intricately interlaced with the Bombay British Districts, and may, from a geographical point of view, be regarded as forming part of the Bombay Presidency. The Portuguese possessions of Goa, Damán, and Diu, with an aggregate area of about 3806 square kilometres, and population (1881) of 475,172 souls, are also included within its geographical limits. The capital of the Presidency, the residence of the Governor, and the head-quarters of all the administrative departments, is BOMBAY CITY, situated on an island of the same name on the shore of the Arabian Sea, in 18° 55′ 5″ N. latitude, and 72° 53′ 55″ E. longitude.

Boundaries. — Bombay Presidency is bounded on the north-west, north, and north-east by Balúchistán and Khelát, the British Province of the Punjab, and the Native States of Rájputána; on the east by the Native States of the Central India Agency, the Central Provinces, West Berár, and the Dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád; on the south by the Presidency of Madras and the State of Mysore; and on the west by the Arabian Sea.

History.—The territory included within the Bombay Presidency was in old times partitioned among many independent kingdoms. The most ancient records and memorials, such as the inscribed rock of Girnár and the caves of Ajanta, carry us back to the period before and at the commencement of the Christian era, when Buddhism was the orthodox creed throughout the peninsula of India. A survival of this early faith is represented by the Jains, who are still an influential sect in the Bombay Presidency, adhering with tenacity to their ancient traditions. The names of the most ancient Hindu kingdoms which can be localized in Western India are—MAHARASHTRA, the present Maráthá country, which is interpreted to mean either 'the great country' or 'the country of the aboriginal tribe of Mahars;' Gujaráshtra, or the modern Gujarát (GUZERAT), 'the country of the Gújars,' including the peninsula of KATHIAWAR, which was once the head-quarters of a great kingdom known as Sauráshtra, or the country of the Saurás;' and lastly, Sindhu or SIND, which is emphatically the land of the Indus river. A succession of dynasties, of Rájput origin, ruled over these regions during the first ten centuries of the Christian era. The most powerful seem to have been, the dynasty which had its capital at Walabhí, in the modern Gohelwár; and the Chálúkya empire of the Deccan (Dakshin). Our knowledge of this period is chiefly derived from coins and charters on stone and copper, which have been found

great abundance in certain localities. Continuous history begins ith the invasion of the Musalmáns.

Sind was the first part of India in which the Muhammadans established footing. But the best known event in this period of history is the nvasion of Gujarát (GUZERAT) by Máhmúd of Ghazní, in 1024, when the sacred temple of Somnáth was sacked and an immense booty carried away by the invader. Henceforth the Rájput dynasty of Gujarát, whose capital was at Anhilwárá or Patan, defended themselves with varying success against successive waves of invasion, until their kingdom was finally destroyed in 1297 by Alaf Khán, the general of the Túrki Emperor of Delhi, Alá-ud-dín Khilji. For about a century, from 1297 to 1403, Gujarát was governed by deputies sent from Delhi. The last of these governors, Jáfar Khán, a Rájput renegade, threw off his allegiance to the Emperor, and founded an independent dynasty known as the Ahmadábád kingdom, from the capital built in 1413 by Ahmad I. This dynasty attained to great power and splendour, as is testified both by the reports of European travellers and by the ruined buildings still existing at Ahmadábád and Champáner. Its annual revenue is said to have amounted to 11 millions sterling. In 1573, Gujarát was conquered by the Mughal Emperor, Akbar, who led the invading army in person, and the Province was again subjected to the control of Viceroys from Delhi. During the 17th century, Muhammadan authority was maintained despite the rising power of the Maráthás in the south of the Province. But on the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, all show of order was swept away; and in 1757 the Province of Gujarát, with its capital, Ahmadábád, was finally surrendered to the Maráthás, under the joint leadership of a deputy of the Peshwa and Damájí Gáekwár.

The DECCAN (Dakshin) was first conquered by the Muhammadans in 1294–95, although the difficult nature of the hill tracts, and dissensions among the invaders, long prevented the subjugation from being complete. In 1345, the weakness of Muhammad Tughlak, the Túrki Emperor of Delhi, encouraged Ahmad Sháh Báhmaní to rise in rebellion and to found an independent dynasty called after his own name. Its capita was first at Gúlbarga, but was subsequently removed to Bídar. Abou 1490, the Báhmaní kingdom fell to pieces, being partitioned amon the feudatory nobles, of whom the two greatest founded the dynastie of Bijápur and Ahmadnagar. Towards the close of the 16th centur the Mughal Emperors of Delhi began to press upon these independe kingdoms from the north; and the Maráthá horsemen, under Siva found their opportunity in the continual dissensions of the Musalmá In 1637, the Nizám Sháhí dynasty of Ahmadnagar was finally ov thrown, and its territory divided between the Mughals and the Bijá kings. In 1684, Bijápur was itself taken by the Emperor Aurang

and the Mughals and the Maráthás were left face to face. The great Sivají was born in 1627. He rose to power by availing himself of the hill fastnesses of the Gháts, organizing the sturdy Hindu peasantry into a military confederacy, and alternately playing off the Musalmáns of Bijápur and Delhi against each other. In 1674, he ventured to declare his independence openly by being crowned at Raigarh, and six years afterwards he died. His lineal successors, the Rájás of Satára, did not inherit his genius for command; but the Maráthá traditions were maintained by subordinate officials and generals, who carved out for themselves kingdoms in all parts of the peninsula, and only lost the supreme empire of India by their defeat at the hands of the Afgháns at Pánipat. The most important members of the Maráthá confederacy who played a part in the history of Bombay, were,—the Peshwa, or over-lord, the hereditary mayor of the palace to the effete descendants of Sivají, who may be said to have established his practical supremacy in 1749, with Poona (Púna) for his capital; and the Gáekwár of Baroda. These two chiefs collected tribute during the 18th century from the greater part of what is now the Presidency of Bombay. For the further development of the five great Maráthá houses, see *post*, article INDIA.

The first European nation who had dealings with the west coast of India was the Portuguese. In 1498, Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut; five years later, the great Albuquerque conquered Goa; and as early as 1532, the Portuguese are found in occupation of the island of Bombay. For a hundred years they maintained their monoply of the Eastern trade. The first English ship is said to have arrived at Surat, then the chief emporium of Indian commerce, in 1608. Shortly afterwards the English merchants fought a sea-battle with the Portuguese off Surat, and, as a result of their victory, obtained a charter from the Delhi Emperor Jahángír in 1613, entitling them to establish a factory in that city. The Dutch received a similar authorization in 1618. Bombay island, comprising the present BOMBAY CITY, was ceded to the English Crown in 1661, as part of the dower of the Infanta Catharina on her marriage with Charles II. A British fleet was sent out under the Earl of Marlborough to take possession of the island. But a dispute arose with the Portuguese governor; and in 1668, the king was glad to hand over his unprofitable acquisition, at that time considered as the grave of Europeans, to the East India Company, on payment of an annual rent of £10 in gold. The total revenue was estimated at 75,000 *xeraphins*, or about £6500, paid by a population of about 10,000 souls. The Company forthwith adopted measures to strengthen the fortifications, attract European settlers, and encourage manufactures and commerce. In 1687, the chief control of all the Company's possessions in India was transferred from Surat to Bombay, which was erected into an independent Presidency in 1708, on the amalgamation of the two rival

English Companies trading with India. Finally, in 1773, Bombay was placed in a position of qualified subordination to the Governor-General at Calcutta.

For more than a century the position of the English on the west coast of India was merely that of traders, who had successfully infringed the monopoly of the Portuguese and the Dutch, but were hemmed in on the landward side by the rising power of the Maráthás. The first of the Maráthá chiefs with whom our countrymen at Bombay city came into serious collision was Angria, who, from his stronghold on the island of Kolába, dominated the entire coast of the Konkan with a numerous piratical fleet. In 1756, the Governor of Bombay, in alliance with the Peshwá, despatched an expedition by sea, which captured Angria's fortified harbour of Savarndrúg; and in the same year an expedition sent from England, under the joint command of Admiral Watson and the celebrated Clive, stormed Gheriá or Vizia-drúg, and won a booty of £100,000. The power of the Maráthá pirates was thus broken, but the only territorial acquisition made by the English, was a few villages on the mainland south of Bombay. In 1774, the Bombay Government commenced the first Maráthá war, on the occasion of a disputed succession to the title of Peshwá. This war was marked by the inglorious convention of Wargáon (1779), and the repulse of General Goddard at the foot of the Bhor-Ghát. It was terminated by the treaty of Sálbai (1782); in accordance with which the English retained permanent possession of Salsette, Elephanta, Karanja and Hog Island, but gave back Bassein and all their conquests in Gujarát to the Peshwá, and made over Broach to Sindhia. The castle of Surat had been in British hands since 1759; and in 1800, the entire administration of that city was transferred to them by the Muhammadan Nawáb, whose descendants retained the empty title until 1842.

The second Maráthá war was occasioned by the treaty of Bassein in 1802, by which the Peshwá accepted the subsidiary system that formed the keynote to the Marquis of Wellesley's policy. The northern Maráthá houses combined to break down this treaty, and the military operations known as the second Maráthá war followed (1803–04). As the result of that war, a considerable tract in Gujarát, including the present Districts of Surat, Broach, and Kaira, was ceded to the British, and their political influence became predominant at the courts of Poona and Baroda. During the interval of peace which followed, measures were taken for destroying the haunts of the pirates who then infested the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch (Kachchh). In 1807, the States of Káthiáwár were taken under British protection, and in 1809 the Rá of Cutch was induced to sign a treaty promising to co-operate in the suppression of piracy. But no sooner had the Peshwá, Bájí Ráo, bee restored to his throne at Poona by a British army, than he began to pl

for the expulsion of the British from the Deccan. At last, in 1817, he suddenly attacked the Resident, Mr. Elphinstone, who retired to Kirki, where a small British force was stationed, which a few days afterwards utterly defeated the whole army of the Peshwá. After a few more engagements, the fugitive Peshwá surrendered to Sir John Malcolm. A pension of £80,000 was guaranteed to him for life, but he was deprived of all his dominions. By these measures the Bombay Presidency was augmented by the annexation of the Districts of Poona, Ahmadnagar, Násik, Sholápur, Belgáum, Kaládgi, Dhárwár, Ahmadábád, and the Konkan; thus receiving at one time the greater part of its present territory. At the same date, Holkar made over his rights in Khándesh District to the British. Satára lapsed to the paramount power in 1848, on the death of the last lineal descendant of Sivají without a natural heir; the non-regulation tracts of the Pánch Mahál s were ceded by Sindhia in 1860; and in 1861 the southern limits of the Presidency were extended by the transfer of the District of North Kánara from Madras.

The history of Sind forms a chapter apart from that of the rest of the Presidency. Shortly after the beginning of the present century, the Government of that country was assumed by four brothers of Balúchí origin, known as the Talpur Amírs. The advance of the British power, and especially the right of passage up the Indus at the time of the Afghán war, caused complications with the Amírs of Sind. Hostilities were precipitated by an attack upon the British Residency at Haidarábád, and the war that followed was signalized by the decisive victory of Miání (Meeanee). The Province was annexed to the British Empire in 1843, and the conquering general, Sir Charles Napier, was appointed its first ruler. Sind continues to be administered as a non-regulation Province. A proposal has been under consideration to detach it from Bombay, and to place it, together with the frontier Districts of the Punjab, immediately under the Supreme Government of India.

The recent history of Bombay Presidency is destitute of stirring incidents. Peace has remained unbroken, even during the troublous season of 1857, when the Bombay troops remained, as a body, loyal. The local army has done good service in many climes. In Afghánistán and Persia, in Burma and China, in Aden and Abyssinia, the Sepoys of Bombay have shown themselves willing to do their duty wheresoever called. But the chief glory of British administration has lain in the development of the arts of peace. Instead of the chronic disorder of the Maráthá period, absolute security is now guaranteed to life and property. Where bands of irregular horsemen formerly collected tribute from the villagers at the spear's point, the land revenue is now realized by the operation of law, in amounts larger than could be conceived in the days of military extortion. The rail-

way, a triumph of engineering skill, climbs with ease the famous Bhor-Ghát, which in old times shut off the fertile plateau of the Deccan from the sea-coast, and once witnessed the discomfiture of a British army. A series of administrative reforms, originated by Mountstuart Elphinstone, Governor of Bombay from 1819 to 1827, have been continued and developed by the subsequent succession of rulers; and the benefits of civilisation have been widely distributed through the land. The cultivator is no longer a tenant-at-will of the State, liable to unlimited exactions of revenue; his position is now that of a part owner of the soil, with rights which he can transmit by sale or descent, subject only to the payment of a rent-charge fixed for a term of years. At the same time, the ambition of the upper classes has been turned into the peaceful channels of commerce. The growth of the trade in cotton is at once the cause and the measure of the advance in the average standard of comfort. Wide Districts in Gujarát and the Deccan have found their advantage in cultivating a staple which for a short season brought them a golden return, and still pays better than the ordinary grain crops. Bombay city bears witness by her splendid buildings, her docks, and her public works, to the prosperity of the land over which she rules, and from which she draws a rich tribute.

Physical Aspects.—The Presidency of Bombay presents on the map the appearance of an irregular strip of land, stretching along the eastern shore of the Arabian Sea, and extending up the lower portion of the Indus valley. The continuous coast-line is only broken towards the north by the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch, between which lies the projecting peninsula of Káthiáwár. The seaboard is generally rock-bound and difficult of access, although it contains many little estuaries forming fair-weather ports for vessels engaged in the coasting trade. Bombay and Kárwár alone have harbours sufficiently landlocked to protect shipping during the prevalence of the south-west monsoon.

Physically as well as historically, Bombay Presidency may be roughly divided into two distinct portions, the Narbadá (Nerbudda) forming the boundary line. To the north of that river lie the Province of Gujarát, with the peninsulas of Káthiáwár and Cutch, and the Province of Sind; to the south the Maráthá country, part of the Deccan, the Kárnatic, and the Konkan. The former of these tracts is for the most part a low plain of alluvial origin. In Southern Gujarát the valleys of the Táptí and Narbadá form sheets of unbroken cultivation. But in Northern Gujarát the soil becomes sandy and the rainfall deficient; cultivation is largely dependent upon either artificial irrigation or the natural humidity caused by the neighbourhood of the ocean. In Sind (beyond the delta on the east), the surface is a wide expanse of desert, interrupted only by low cliffs or undulating sand heaps. The geological formation is distinct from that of the rest of

the Indian peninsula, consisting of limestone rocks, continuous with those found in Persia and Arabia.

Bombay, south of the Narbadá, consists of a level coast strip, rising into an upland country. Mountains furrowed by deep valleys intercept the rain-clouds of the monsoons, and blossom with tropical vegetation. The geological formation is composed of nearly horizontal strata of basalt and similar rocks, which naturally break into steep terraces and hog-backed ridges, and have produced by their decomposition the famous 'black cotton soil,' unsurpassed for its fertility. Perched upon these rugged eminences stand the impregnable hill forts famous in Maráthá history. The Deccan, the Kárnatic, and the Konkan are each marked by special features of their own. The Deccan, including Khándesh District, is an elevated plateau behind the Western Gháts. It is drained by several large rivers, along whose banks are tracts of great fertility; but for the rest, the air is dry and the rainfall uncertain. The Kárnatic, or country south of the Krishna (Kistna) river, is a plain of lower elevation, and contains wide expanses of black soil under continuous cultivation. The Konkan is the name of the narrow strip of land lying between the base of the Gháts and the sea. As a whole, it is a rugged and difficult country, intersected by numerous creeks, and abounding in isolated peaks and detached ranges of hills. The cultivation consists only of a few rich plots of rice-land and groves of cocoa-nut. The rainfall is excessive. The Districts of the Presidency are classified as follows, with reference to the natural divisions above described:—

Sind Districts.—Karáchi (Kurrachee), Haidarábád, Shikárpur, Thar and Párkar, and Upper Sind Frontier, forming the Sind Division.

Gujarát Districts.—Ahmadábád, Kaira, Pánch-Maháls, Broach, and Surat.

Konkan Districts.—Thána, Bombay city and island, Kolába, Ratnagiri, and Kánara.

Deccan Districts.—Khándesh, Nasik, Ahmadnagar, Poona (Púna), Sholápur, and Satára.

Western Kárnatic or *South Maráthá Districts.*—Belgáum, Dhárwár, and Kaládgi.

Mountains.—The following are the chief mountain ranges, which all have a general direction from north to south. In the north-west, on the right bank of the Indus, the Hála and Khirtári mountains, a continuation of the great Sulaimán range, separate British India from the domains of the Khán of Khelát. In Sind there are low ranges of sandhills, and in Cutch and Káthiáwár several isolated peaks and cliffs, which form geologically a continuation of the Arávalli mountains. Proceeding towards the south-east, an extensive mountain chain is met with, which may be regarded either as a southern spur of the Arávalli mountains, or a northern prolongation of the Western Gháts beyond

the valleys of the Táptí and Narbadá. These hills separate Gujarát from the States of Central India, beginning in the neighbourhood of Mount Abú, and stretching southwards down to the right bank of the Narbadá. South of the Tápti the country becomes rugged and broken, with isolated masses of rock and projecting spurs, forming the watershed for the great rivers of the Deccan. This rugged region constitutes, strictly speaking, the northern extremity of the Western Gháts, here called the Sahyádri Hills. That great range runs southward, parallel to the sea-coast for upwards of 500 miles, with a general elevation of about 1800 feet above the sea, though individual peaks rise to more than double that height. The western declivity is abrupt, and the low strip of land bordering the sea-shore is seldom more than 40 miles in width. The Gháts do not descend in one sheer precipice, but, as is usually the case with a trap formation, the descent is broken by a succession of terraces. The landward slope is gentle, also falling in terraces, the crest of the range being in many cases but slightly raised above the level of the central plateau of the Deccan. Apart from many minor spurs of the Western Gháts, only two ranges in the Presidency have a direction from east to west. The Sátpura range, from the neighbourhood of the fort of Asírgarh to its termination in the east of Gujarát, forms the watershed between the Táptí and Narbadá rivers, separating Khándesh District from the territories of Indore, and attaining an elevation of over 5000 feet. The Sátmála or Ajanta Hills, which divide Khándesh from the Nizám's Dominions on the south, are of less importance, being rather the northern slope of the plateau of the Deccan than a distinct hill range.

Rivers.—Bombay Presidency has no great rivers which it can call its own. The outlying Province of Sind is penetrated throughout its entire length from north to south by the INDUS, whose overflowing waters are almost the sole means of distributing fertility through that parched region. Its season of flood begins in March and continues until September; the discharge of water, calculated at 40,857 cubic feet per second in December, is said to increase tenfold in August, the average depth of the river increasing during the inundation from 9 to 24 feet, and the velocity of the current increasing from 3 to 7 miles an hour. The entire lower portion of the delta is torn and furrowed by old channels of the river, for the surface is a light sand, easily swept away and re-deposited year by year. A full account of the utility of the Indus, both for irrigation and navigation, will be found in the separate article on that river. The plains of Northern Gujarát are watered by a few small streams, the chief of which are the Sabarmati and Máhi, both rising in the Máhi Kántha Hills and flowing southward into the head of the Gulf of Cambay. The Narbadá in its westerly course to the sea from Central India, has but a short section within the limits of the Presidency.

separates the territory of Baroda from Rewá Kántha, and, after passing the city of Broach, falls into the Gulf of Cambay by a noble estuary. For about 100 miles from the sea it is navigable at all seasons by country boats, and during the rains by vessels of 50 tons burthen. The Táptí, although a smaller river, has a greater commercial importance. It flows through the whole length of Khándesh District, and enters the sea a little above the city of Surat. Both these rivers run for the most part between high banks, and are little used for the purposes of irrigation. Passing southwards, the hill streams which rise in the Western Gháts and flow west into the Arabian Sea are very numerous, but of little importance. During the rains they become formidable torrents, but in the hot season they dwindle away and almost cease to flow. In the low lands of the Konkan their annual floods have worn deep tidal creeks, which form valuable highways for traffic. In the extreme south of the Presidency, in the District of North Kánara, these westward-flowing streams become larger; one of them, the Sharávati, plunges downwards from the mountains in the celebrated Falls of Gersappa. This majestic cataract consists of five cascades in the dry weather, which spring over the face of a rock 890 feet in height. During the rains, the five cascades unite into one magnificent avalanche of water. On the eastern side of the Gháts are the headwaters of both the Godávarí and Kistna (Krishna) rivers, the former of which rises near Násik and the latter near Mahábaleshwar. Both of these, after collecting the waters of many tributary streams, some of considerable size, leave the Presidency in a south-easterly direction, crossing the entire plain of the Deccan on their way to the Bay of Bengal.

Bays and Lakes.—The most peculiar natural feature in the Presidency is the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). Authorities have not yet decided whether it is an arm of the sea from which the waters have receded, or an inland lake whose seaward barrier has been swept away by some natural convulsion. It covers an estimated area of 8000 square miles, forming the western boundary of the Province of Gujarát; but when flooded during the rainy season, it unites the two gulfs of Cutch and Cambay, and converts the peninsula of Cutch into an island. In the dry season the soil is impregnated with salt, the surface in some places being moist and marshy, and in others strewed with gravel and shingle like a dry river-bed or sea-beach. At this time the Rann is frequented by numerous herds of antelope, the 'black buck' of sportsmen. Large tracts of marshy land are to be found in the Province of Sind, caused by changes in the course of the Indus. The Manchhar lake, on the right bank of the river, near the town of Sehwán, is swelled during the annual season of inundation to an area of about 160 square miles; and a large portion of the newly-formed delta has not yet been fully reclaimed from the antagonistic forces of

the river and the sea. Along the coast of the Konkan the low-lying lands on the borders of the salt-water creeks are liable to be overflowed at high tide. Two artificial sheets of water may for their size be dignified with the title of lakes; Vehár tank and Tulsí lake, constructed to provide Bombay city with water. The former is situated about 16 miles distant from the city, amid a group of hills near the town of Thána; it has an area of about 1400 acres. The latter lies three miles north of Vehár, and about two miles south of the Kanheri caves, with an area of 331 acres. Another sheet of water, the Kharakwásla tank, intended to supply Poona, and also to irrigate the neighbouring fields, covers an area of 3500 acres.

Minerals.—Bombay Presidency is deficient in mineral wealth, although abundantly supplied with stone adapted for building and road-making. At Teágar, or Tegur, in the District of Dhárwár, iron-ore is mined and smelted, but the scarcity of fuel prevents operations on an extensive scale. In the same District, large slate quarries are worked. There are five valuable limestone quarries near Karáchí (Kurrachee), and lime is burned in Belgáum District. The bordering mountains of Baluchistán are reported to contain large quantities of gypsum, copper, lead, antimony, and sulphur.

The Forests of Bombay belong to two separate classes—the produce of the alluvial plains in Sind, and the produce of the mountains of the Western Gháts. The State reserves in Sind are estimated to cover an area of 375,329 acres, lying along the banks of the Indus. They are divided into blocks, locally known as *belás*, which are said to have been originally formed as hunting-grounds by the Amírs, the former Muhammadan rulers of the Province. Frequent changes in the course of the river sweep away large portions of these *belás*, the average annual loss from erosion being calculated at as much as 10,000 acres; and, though fresh deposits of alluvion afford some compensation, it takes many years to replace the timber-trees thus carried off. The most valuable trees are the *sisu* or blackwood (Dalbergia sisoo), in small plantations; *babúl* (Acacia arabica), which here attains a fair size; *bhán* (Populus euphratica), a soft wood which grows in grea abundance in Upper Sind; and tamarisk (Tamarix indica), which neve attains large dimensions, but is extensively used as fuel by the rive steamers. The *kundí* (Prosopis spicigera) is a very important tree the arid tracts. The bamboo is altogether unknown in Sind, but th true date (Phœnix dactylifera) grows abundantly near Sakkar, in t upper part of the Province. In 1880–81, the total receipts of t Forest Department in Sind amounted to £42,784, against an expen ture of £29,916, showing a net profit of £12,868. The work of c servancy is chiefly confined to the prevention of mischief by fire, the planting of *babúl* trees.

The hill forests of Bombay are practically limited to the Western Gháts. In Gujarát and the Kárnatic, cultivation is too widely spread; while in the Deccan and in Khándesh District the atmosphere is too dry, and the rainfall too uncertain. In the northern extremity of the Gháts occur the tracts known as the Dángs, which yield little besides timber; and in the extreme south, the District of North Kánara forms in its uplands one vast forest, from which half of the total forest revenue in the Presidency is derived. The woods of the Northern Konkan possess an especial value from their nearness to Bombay city. The following are the principal timber-trees in the hills:—Teak (Tectona grandis), blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), *tiwás* (Oujeinia dalbergiodes), *honé* or *bibla* (Pterocarpus marsupium), *ain* or *sádara* (Terminalia tomentosa), ebony and *pún*, *babúl* (Acacia arabica), *khayer* or *khair* (Acacia catechu), *hedu* (Adina cordifolia), *kalam* or *yetgal* (Stephegyne parvifolia), *nána* and *bonda* (Lagerstrœmia lanceolata), *asána* (Briedelia retusa), ironwood or *jamba* (Xylia dolabriformis). Sandal-wood is found only in the forests of Kánara. In 1880–81, the total revenue of the Forest Department in the Regulation Districts of the Bombay Presidency was £109,496; the total expenditure was £81,593, leaving a profit of £27,903. The sowing of teak and *babúl* plantations is conducted on an extensive scale. The total forest area of the northern and southern Divisions of the Presidency, in 1880–81, was returned at 14,300 square miles, of which 13,259 square miles are conserved.

Besides timber-trees, the forests of Bombay Presidency yield other wild produce of commercial value. The fruit-trees include mango (Mangifera Indica), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba), and *bél* (Ægle marmelos), the fruit of which is a specific in dysentery. *Khayer* or *Khair* (Acacia catechu), besides supplying timber and fire-wood, is also the source of cutch or Terra japonica; Terminalia chebula yields the myrobolams of commerce. *Undi* (Callophyllum inophyllum), *karanja* (Pongamia glabra), and *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia), all supply oil for industrial purposes. The *mahuá* flowers are an important article of food, and a spirit is also distilled from them. The palms comprise the cocoa-nut (Cocos nucifera), the wild date (Phœnix sylvestris), the Palmyra palm (Borassus flabelliformis), the talipot or umbrella palm (Corypha umbraculifera), the *bhérali-már* (Caryota urens), and the betel-nut or *supárí* (Areca catechu). The jungle tribes collect gums from several varieties of trees, and in Sind the Government derives a small revenue from the lac found on the *babúl*.

Fauna.—Among the wild animals peculiar to the Presidency may be mentioned the maneless lion of Gujarát, which zoologists are now disposed to regard as a local variety rather than a separate species; and the wild ass, frequenting the sandy deserts of Cutch and Upper Sind.

Leopards are common, but the tiger has retreated before the advance of cultivation, and is now only found in remote jungles. The black bear (Ursus labiatus) is found wherever rocky hills and forests occur; and the bison (Gavæus gaurus) haunts the mountain glades of Kánara. Of deer, the *sámbhar* (Rusa aristotelis) is found in the same localities as the bison, though in greater abundance; while the *nilgái* (Portax pictus) and the antelope are so numerous, especially in Gujarát, as to become sometimes a pest to the cultivators. Small game, such as snipe, quail, partridges, and wild duck, can generally be obtained by the sportsman in all parts of the Presidency, even within easy reach of the suburbs of Bombay. In the year 1881, the total number of registered deaths throughout the Presidency caused by wild beasts was only 120; whereas venomous snakes killed 1209 persons.

Concerning domestic animals, it may be said that the cattle of Bombay Presidency are everywhere too numerous for the pasturage available. In breeding, no attention is paid to artificial selection, and the present poor condition of the animals is said to be becoming worse. In Gujarát a class of bullocks of more than ordinary size is met with, used especially for drawing carts along the deep sandy roads of that country. Into the south of the Presidency a yet more valuable breed of draught oxen is imported from Mysore. In certain parts buffaloes are commonly used for ploughing; and throughout Sind, the camel is the one animal for all agricultural purposes. In former days the horses of Káthiáwár and the Deccan were highly valued for military purposes, but both breeds have now much deteriorated. Horse shows are encouraged by the Government, and stallions, nearly all Arabs, with a few imported from England, are kept at the public expense. In the year 1880–81 the agricultural returns for the entire Presidency showed a total of 3,001,226 bullocks and 1,930,395 cows; 373,327 male and 1,020,944 female buffaloes; 45,376 horses, 49,377 mares, and 24,553 foals; 98,833 asses; and 2,805,664 sheep and goats. A considerable proportion of the asses, and also many camels, are found in the Districts of Sind.

Population, 1854–1881.—Careful estimates, published in 1854, gave the following figures for the area and population of the Bombay Presidency. Total area of the British Districts, including Sind 120,065 square miles; total population, 11,109,067, or an average o[f] 92·55 per square mile. Total area of Native States, 60,650 squar[e] miles; total population, 4,469,925. Grand total, 180,715 square mile[s] and 15,578,992 inhabitants (1854). The Census of 1872, conducte[d] throughout the British Districts on the night of 21st February, whic[h] extended to all the Native States with the exception of Baroda, d[is]closed a population of 16,285,636 in the British Districts, 6,801,4[..] in the Native States; total, 23,087,076 souls, on an area practica[lly] corresponding with the present territory. The latest Census of 18[..]

taken on the night of the 17th February, returned a population of 16,489,274 souls for the British Districts of the Presidency, inclusive of Aden; and of 9,126,254 souls for the Native States, inclusive of Baroda; total, 25,615,528. The population of Baroda is here included for purposes of comparison with the previous Census. The State was transferred from the political control of Bombay to the Government of India in 1875. The District operations were conducted under the orders of the several Collectors. The actual enumeration was effected by the subordinate Government agency in each village, supplemented where necessary by paid labour. The total cost of the Census was £20,244, or an average of about a farthing per head of the population enumerated, *i.e.* within British Districts.

POPULATION, ETC. OF THE BRITISH DISTRICTS IN THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY, AND OF ADEN, ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1881.

	British Districts.	Area Sq. Miles.	Towns and Villages	Houses (Occupied).	Population (1881).	Populat'n per Sq. Mile.
Northern Division.	Ahmadábád,	3,821	862	199,996	856,324	224
	Káira,	1,609	581	191,282	804,800	500
	Pánch Maháls,	1,613	675	50,970	255,479	158
	Broach,	1,453	405	72,235	326,930	225
	Surat,	1,662	782	119,892	614,198	370
	Thána,	4,243	2,101	154,403	908,548	214
	Kolába,	1,496	975	71,930	381,649	255
	Total,	15,897	6,381	860,708	4,147,928	261
Central Division.	Khándesh,	9,944	2,683	208,995	1,237,231	124
	Násik,	5,940	1,633	122,816	781,206	131
	Ahmadnagar,	6,666	1,334	105,386	751,228	113
	Poona (Púna),	5,348	1,185	153,401	900,621	168
	Sholápur,	4,521	712	81,203	582,487	129
	Satára,	4,988	1,343	151,173	1,062,350	213
	Total,	37,407	8,890	822,974	5,315,123	142
Southern Division.	Belgáum,	4,657	1,077	154,806	864,014	186
	Dhárwár,	4,535	1,285	161,150	882,907	195
	Kaládgi,	5,757	1,141	114,533	638,493	111
	North Kánara,	3,911	1,109	68,832	421,840	108
	Ratnagiri,	3,922	1,297	177,844	997,090	254
	Total,	22,782	5,909	677,165	3,804,344	167
Sind Division.	Karáchí,	14,115	723	87,059	478,688	34
	Thar and Párkar,	12,729	73	36,412	203,344	16
	Haidarábád,	9,030	1,105	150,488	754,624	83
	Shikárpur,	10,001	1,373	137,702	852,986	85
	Upper Sind Frontier,	2,139	143	21,923	124,181	58
	Total,	48,014	3,417	433,584	2,413,823	52
	Aden,	12	1	5,254	34,860	2,905
	Bombay City,	22	1	28,310	773,196	33,662
	Total,	34	2	33,564	808,056	23,766
	Grand total for Presidency,	124,134	24,599	2,827,995	16,489,274	133

The table on the preceding page shows the area, population, number of villages and houses, and the average density of population in each British District, and in Aden, in 1881.

The following table gives the statistics available for the area and population of the Native States, or aggregates of States under single Agencies, in political connection with the Bombay Government, according to the Census of 1881:—

AREA, POPULATION, ETC. OF NATIVE STATES IN THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY (1881).

Native States and Tracts.	Area, Square Miles.	Towns and Villages.	Houses (Occupied).	Population (1881).	Population per Sq. Mile.
Baroda,[1]	8,570	3,012	479,643	2,185,005	254·9
Kolhápur, ...	2,816	1,061	129,148	800,189	284·1
Cutch (Kachchh), exclusive of the Rann,	6,500	897	102,007	512,084	78·8
Máhi Kántha States, ...	11,049	1,816	117,112	517,485	46·8
Rewá Kántha States, ...	4,792	1,104	109,730	543,452	113·4
Káthiáwár States, ...	20,559	4,168	479,435	2,343,899	114·0
Pálanpur States, ...	8,000	1,108	125,237	576,478	72·1
Cambay, ...	350	85	21,702	86,074	245·9
Sáwantwári, ...	900	226	30,444	174,433	193·8
Janjíra, ...	325	226	14,421	76,361	234·9
Southern Maráthá Jágírs, ...	2,734	602	90,799	523,753	191·6
Satára Jágírs, ...	3,314	736	45,646	318,687	96·2
Jawhár, ...	535	116	8,307	48,556	90·9
Surat States, ...	1,220	379	27,894	151,132	123·9
Sawanúr, ...	70	24	2,646	14,763	210·9
Nárukot, ...	143	52	1,313	6,440	45·0
Akalkot, ...	498	105	8,493	58,040	116·5
Khándesh States (The Dangs), . . .	3,840	486	11,313	60,270	15·7
Khairpur, Sind, ...	6,109	...	25,720	129,153	21·1
Total, ...	82,324	16,203	1,831,010	9,126,254	110·9

According to these tables, the total area of territory included in the Presidency of Bombay, with Aden and Baroda, is 206,457 square miles, and the population is 25,615,528 souls. The average density of population throughout the British Districts of the Presidency is 133 per square mile, but the pressure varies greatly in different tracts. The two most densely peopled Districts in Bombay Proper are Kaira, with 500 persons to the square mile, and Surat, with 370. The two least populous in Bombay Proper are Kaládgi, with 111, and North Kánara, with 108. The average in the outlying Province of Sind is only 52 per square mile, falling as low as 16 in the sandy desert of Thar and Párkar. Classified according to sex, the population of the British Districts, exclusive of Aden, is made up of 8,497,718 males and 7,956,696 females; proportion of males, 51·6 per cent. This proportion of males is main-

[1] In 1875, the political control of the State of Baroda was transferred from Bombay to the Supreme Government of India; as it comes within the Presidency limits, it is here included.

tained fairly uniformly throughout, except in Sind, where it rises to 54·55 per cent. The low proportion of 47·4 per cent. of males in Ratnágiri District, as compared with the high rate of 60·0 per cent. in Bombay city, is to be explained by the natural influx of male labourers from the neighbouring country to find work in the city. Classified according to age, there are, under fourteen years of age, 3,371,089 boys and 3,065,956 girls; total children, 6,437,045, or 39·1 per cent. of the entire population. The proportion of girls to total females is nearly equal to that of boys to total males. The number of persons afflicted with certain specified infirmities is thus returned:—Unsound mind—males 5137, and females 2617: total, 7754: deaf and dumb—males 7151, and females 4706: total, 11,857: blind—males 20,355, females, 23,400; total, 43,755: lepers—males 7425, females 2670; total, 10,095: grand total of infirms, 73,467, or 1 in every 224 of the population. The large preponderance of males in all these classes except among the blind is noteworthy. The classification of the people according to occupation shows—267,393 persons in Government employ, or 1·62 per cent.; 5,288,006 engaged in agriculture and with animals, or 32·14 per cent.; 200,712 in trade and commerce, or 1·22 per cent.; 1,554,457 in manufactures and arts, or 9·45 per cent.; 182,950 in domestic occupations, or 1·11 per cent.; and 8,846,834, or 53·75 per cent., as belonging to the indefinite and non-productive classes, including women and children who do not work. The returns give a total of 995,464 persons as able to read and write, or under instruction; being 1 in every 16 of the population.

Ethnology and Language.—The classification according to caste and nationality adopted in the Census Report of 1872 did not throw much light upon the ethnical characteristics of the population of Bombay; but it was supplemented by two valuable papers drawn up by the late Rev. Dr. John Wilson. The Census of 1881 returns for the British Districts 16,418,704 Asiatics; 16,852 non-Asiatics; and 18,858 whose birthplace was not returned or not ascertainable. The Asiatics are sub-divided into those from beyond the frontier of India, who number 73,252, almost entirely Balúchís, Mekránís, Persians, Patháns, and Arabs, found mostly in the Province of Sind; and natives of British India, who are further sub-divided into 562,678 aborigines, 12,308,582 Hindus, 3,021,131 Musalmáns, and 453,061 'others. The total number of Hindus, again, is made up of 664,411 Bráhmans, 196,906 Rájputs, 9,100,933 castes of good social position, and 2,346,332 other inferior castes of Hindus.

A more intelligible principle of ethnical classification arranges the people according to their languages. This would give three territorial divisions of the Presidency, having the Maráthí, the Gujaráthí, and the Sindhí as their prevailing speech; and two minor territorial sub-divisions

represented by the Kánarese and the Konkani dialects. The principal languages are Maráthí, spoken by 47·11 per cent. of the people; Gujaráthí, by 18·86 per cent.; Kánarese, by 12·77 per cent.; Sindhí, by 12·47 per cent.; and Hindustáni or Urdu, by 5·3 per cent.

In the north of Khándesh, Maráthí merges into Hindi; and in the Dángs, on the west of Khándesh, the Gujaráthí element is more pronounced. Along the coast, Maráthí may be said to begin at the Dámangangá river, or with Thána District, and to run, with local variations, down to Goa; but to the east the extension is wider, and for a considerable distance into the Central Provinces, Berár and the territory of the Nizám, Maráthí is the most prevalent vernacular. In the south, away from the coast and above the Gháts, it may be said to follow the course of the Krishna, beyond which river Kánarese pervades the whole of the southern part of the Presidency.

The Gujaráthí language begins at the north of the Dámán river, and is the prevalent speech over the whole territory between that river and the confines of Rájputána. Owing to the enterprise of merchants from Gujarát, and to the use of the same language by Pársís, as well as by Hindu traders, it has become the commercial tongue of the seaports, and is found all over the Presidency. In Cutch the language, though more Gujaráthí than anything else, has a strong Sindhí element in it. The Sindhí is confined mostly to the Province from which it derives its name.

Of the languages of the Bombay Presidency, all except the Kánarese are derivatives from the Sanskrit, closely allied to each other, though distinguishable by broad lines of difference. The Kánarese is a member of the Dravidian family, which is dominant throughout Southern India. It is perhaps necessary to point out that the common derivation of these languages from the Sanskrit by no means involves as a corollary that the peoples who use them are equally descended from the Aryan stock. No decisive inference can be drawn from language to race. For example, the hill tribes of Bhíls, who are manifestly the aborigines of this part of India, have lost the recollection o their own language, and now use whatever dialect is spoken by thei more immediate neighbours. The classification, however, into Maráth Gujaráthí, Sindhí, and Kánarese, accurately enough represents th principal nationalities of Western India, as determined by ethnic characteristics and a common history.

The Maráthás have a distinct national individuality. They are active, energetic race, liable to religious enthusiasm, and full of milita ardour. In their native mountains of the Deccan, they never submitt to a permanent Muhammadan yoke; and under the successors of Siv they not only asserted their independence, but laid the greater part India under tribute. In the season of their prosperity their vices w

rather those of treachery and violence than of debauchery. In physical appearance they are of middle height, and somewhat of a copper colour, varying in shade in different Districts. The chief caste or tribe among them is the agricultural Kunbí, a name identical with the Kúrmís of Northern India. Sivají himself belonged to the fighting class of the Kunbí peasantry; and though the Kunbís are regarded by the Bráhmans as mere Súdras, they themselves claim to rank with Kshattriyas or Rájputs. Altogether the Maráthás acknowledge upwards of 200 castes, including 34 septs of Bráhmans. A comparatively high status is awarded to those castes who work in metal.

The inhabitants of Gujarát include a somewhat larger Muhammadan element, although the Hindús among them are characterized by a strong religious feeling, which has taken shape in the popular development of the Vallabhácharíya sect of Vaishnavas. The three superior castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Vaisyas are numerously represented. The Gujaráthí Bráhmans are sub-divided into no fewer than 160 different septs. The Rájput clans are specially numerous in Káthiáwár, where they have given names to the local divisions of the country, and continue to be the ruling caste. The Vaisyas, whether Hindús or Jains, have attained under the common denomination of Baniyás a high degree of prosperity as shopkeepers, money-lenders, and wholesale merchants. Their trading operations extend to the coasts of Arabia and Africa. The chief tribes forming the mass of the Gujarát population are the Kulambís and Ahírs; while the aboriginal race of Kulís is rapidly rising in the scale of civilisation.

The people of the outlying Province of Sind are almost all Muhammadans by religion, as their country was the earliest field of Musalmán conquest in India. But their preservation of a dialect derived from the Sanskrit, although with a large infusion of Arabic and Persian words, indicates that they are descended from the early Hindu inhabitants of the Province, who are said to have been converted in a body during the reign of the Beni-Umayyih Khalífs. The Sind Muhammadans of foreign origin include Sayyids, Afgháns, Balúchís, Memons, and Khojahs. The Bráhmans of Sind are connected with their caste-fellows of the Punjab. Among the trading castes the Lohánís deserve mention, as conducting the greater part of the trade that passes through Khelát and Afghánistán.

In Kánara and the adjoining tracts the population shares in the general characteristics of the Kárnatic. The Bráhmans form a more homogeneous body than in the rest of the Presidency, but their general influence is perhaps less, owing to the degree to which sect is substituted for caste among all Dravidians. The Lingáyats, or worshippers of Siva under the form of the *linga*, are an especially influential body, though of comparatively late origin.

Religions.—The religious classification in the Census Report of the 16½ millions within the British Districts shows the following results:—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 12,308,582, or 74·9 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 3,021,131, or 18·36 per cent.; Jains, 216,224, or 1·31 per cent.; Christians, 138,317, or 0·84 per cent.; Pársís, 72,065; Sikhs, 127,100; Jews, 7952; aborigines, 562,678. The proportion of Hindus is highest in the Deccan. Of the total number of Muhammadans, as many as 1,887,204 are found in Sind, where they form 78·10 of the population; only 78,531 are returned as Shiás, and 178 as Wahábis, the rest belonging to the Sunní sect. The Muhammadans are again divided into the following sects and nationalities:—Sayyids, 108,950; Shaikhs, 658,739; Patháns, 105,034; Balúchís, 409,200; Sindhis, 1,275,038; other Muhammadans, 464,170. The sect of Shiás is represented chiefly by two or three classes of traders and merchants. The largest of these is the Borah, and perhaps the best known is the Khojah; in addition to these are a few Mughals. The Shiá element is strongest at the capital, where the trading class is most numerous. The centre of the Borah class is in Surat, the residence of their chief priest. The leader of the main body of the Khoja community is the Persian prince Agá Ali Shah, whose predecessor, the well-known Agá Khán, was long a resident of Bombay, after the troubles that drove him from Persia. The Khojahs are converts from Hinduism, and acknowledge as their spiritual head the Imám of the Ismáilí sect, who are supposed to represent the Assassins (Hashisheir) of the Crusaders. They are especially numerous in the Peninsula of Káthiáwár. They have also established trading colonies along the east coast of Africa. Among the Christians are included 28,859 Protestants, 35 Armenians, 21 Greeks, and 109,470 Roman Catholics. Of the whole number of Christians, 23,596 are European, 2893 Eurasian, and 111,840 Native. The great majority of the Christians are found in Bombay city and Thána District, where the Indo-Portuguese element is strongly represented. The Pársís number 72,065, of whom two-thirds are found in Bombay city, and a large portion of the remainder in Surat District. The Sikhs number 127,100, chiefly in Sind; and the Jews, 7952.

Houses, etc.—The total number of houses returned by the Census of 1881 was 3,605,812, of which 2,822,741 were occupied. The total number of towns and villages was 24,598, with an average of 669 persons to each. There were altogether 167 towns, each with more than 5000 inhabitants. The total population of these 167 towns in 1881 was 2,925,190, or 17·65 per cent. of the population of the Presidency. In 1880–81, there were altogether 164 municipalities, including Bombay, of which 11 were city and 150 town municipalities, while the remaining

were temporary municipalities, established for the purpose of providing the necessary sanitary arrangements at large fairs or gatherings of pilgrims at particular seasons. The aggregate population within municipal limits was 2,488,587, or 15·12 per cent. of the total. In that year the total gross municipal income, including Bombay city, was £597,820, the average incidence of municipal taxation being 4s. 4¾d. per head. The following six towns each have a population exceeding 50,000:—BOMBAY CITY and ISLAND, 773,196; POONA, 99,622 city, 30,129 cantonment; AHMADABAD, 127,621; SURAT, 109,844; KARACHI (KURRACHEE), 73,560; SHOLAPUR, 61,281.

Agriculture.—The wide extent and the varied configuration of the Bombay Presidency permit great variations in agriculture. The two most important food-crops are *bájrá* or great millet (Sorghum vulgare) and *jodri* or spiked millet (Holcus spicatus), which are especially cultivated in the Deccan. Rice is chiefly grown in the low lands of the Konkan. Wheat is extensively cultivated in parts of Gujarát and in Sind, and barley is grown in the same localities to a smaller extent. The aboriginal tribes mainly support themselves on inferior cereals, such as *náchaní* (Eleusine corocana) and *kodra* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), which they plant in patches of cultivation amid the primeval jungle that clothes the hill-sides. The most important kinds of pulse are gram or chick-pea (Cicer arietinum), *túr* (Cajanus indicus), *kúlthi* (Dolichos biflorus), and *múg* (Phaseolus mungo). The oil-seeds are mustard, linseed (of which the fibres are not utilized as flax), castor-oil, *til* (Sesamum orientale), which yields the gingelly oil of commerce, and *kasumba* or safflower (Carthamus tinctorius). Among fibres, cotton holds by far the chief place, both in the Deccan and in Gujarát; *ambárí* or Deccan hemp (Hibiscus cannabinus) and *san* or Konkani hemp (Crotolaria juncea) are also grown. The miscellaneous crops include tobacco, of which the finest quality is produced in Káira District; sugar-cane, which requires a rich soil and a perennial water supply; potatoes, grown in the hill country near Poona; red pepper, turmeric, other spices, and indigo. It will be observed that this list leaves few staples available for export, besides cotton, oil-seeds, and wheat.

The revenue system of Bombay, based upon a cadastral survey of every cultivated field, favours the collection of agricultural statistics. Commencing from the village as the revenue unit, and rising through the *táluks* or Sub-divisions up to the District organization, the minutest particulars affecting the administration of the land are recorded year by year. The following are the statistics of cultivation for the year 1880–81, excluding certain Districts to which the system of the revenue survey has not yet been extended:—Exclusive of Sind, the total area of cultivable lands liable to Government assessment was returned at 24,839,908 acres; total area actually under cultivation.

21,869,643, of which 20,418,867 acres are classified as dry-crop lands, and 1,041,648 as rice lands. In Sind, the cultivated land during the *kharíf* season was returned at 1,956,787 acres, the unoccupied at 704,688 acres, the fallow at 650,601 acres; during the *rabí* season the figures were 293,399 acres under cultivation, 136,883 acres unoccupied, and 100,537 acres lying fallow. The chief crops in 1880-81 were thus distributed over an aggregate area of 20,426,966 acres: barley, 28,875; maize, 81,761; *joári*, 6,047,829; *bájrá*, 3,805,474; other cereals, 2,259,158; rice, 1,757,161; wheat, 1,579,961; pulses, 1,631,944; oil-seeds, 1,086,410; cotton, 1,826,407; tobacco, 55,156; sugar-cane, 51,329; garden produce, 86,427; condiments, spices, and drugs, 116,099; dyes, 12,975; the sums advanced by Government during the season to agriculturists for purchase of seed and stock amounted to £3946, including a sum of £421 for permanent improvements. At the close of the year 1881, there were 78 Government stallions for the improvement of horse-breeding and stock, at various places in the Presidency. The number of mares covered in that year was 2185. The stallions were in greatest request at Sirúr, Poona (Púna), Ahmadnagar, and Jacobábád, and in Khándesh District and Káthiáwár.

Cotton.—The cultivation of the great export staple of cotton is sufficiently important to deserve special mention. Even before the close of the last century, India exported a considerable amount of raw cotton to England, but this was mainly grown in Bundelkhand, collected at Gházípur, and shipped from Calcutta. The trade was fostered by the East India Company; but it does not appear to have been of a profitable nature, and the totals despatched fluctuated greatly year by year. Bombay appears not to have entered into the business until about 1825. For many years afterwards the shipments of cotton were liable to great vicissitudes, depending chiefly upon the yield of the American crop. But the Indian cultivators found their opportunity when the war between the North and South in the United States cut off the supplies of the English manufacturer, and caused the 'cotton famine' among the mill operatives in Lancashire. During the five years ending with 1853-54, the export of cotton from Bombay had averaged under 180 million lbs., valued at 2½ millions sterling; in the five years ending 1868-69, the average quantity had risen to 424 million lbs., and the average value to nearly 20 millions sterling. In the single year 1864-65, the value was as high as £30,370,482. This period of extraordinary prosperity led to much wild speculation. The collapse came in 1865, on the termination of the American war. The bubble schemes and financial companies in Bombay city burst one after the other, and brought down in the general ruin the *quasi*-official Bank of Bombay. Meanwhile, the cultivators had turned the excessive profits of a few years, into the solid form of gold

and silver ornaments. Prices have fallen very heavily, but the quantity of cotton grown is maintained. In 1875-76, the amount exported was 3,722,436 cwts., valued at £10,209,389, or nearly as large a quantity as when speculation was at its height, though the value is diminished to one-third. In 1880-81, the extent of land under cotton in the whole Presidency, including Sind and the Native States, was returned at 4,193,074 acres. Of this area, 3,450,503 acres were planted with indigenous, and 742,571 with exotic cotton. The quantity exported in the same year from the Presidency was returned at 3,220,308 cwts., valued at £9,779,049 from Bombay, and 104,605 cwts., valued at £285,776, from Sind. In the same year the total number of steam gins was 2430. Much has been done of late years to improve the quality of the cotton grown in the Presidency. American varieties have been introduced successfully into Dhárwár and other parts of the South Maráthá country. In Khándesh the indigenous plant, from which one of the lowest classes in the Bombay market took its name, has now been almost superseded by the Hinganghát variety from the Central Provinces, under the trade name Amráoti ('Oomrawutty'). Agricultural experiments in cotton as well as in other crops are made at three State Model Farms, at Hála in Sind, in Khándesh, and in Dhárwár. Though these experiments have not resulted in pecuniary profit, much valuable information has been gained.

Irrigation.—Except in Sind, where the annual rainfall is insignificant, and the crops are entirely dependent upon artificial supplies of water drawn from the Indus by a network of canals, irrigation is not generally practised in the Bombay Presidency. In bad seasons every advantage is taken of the water that is available for use in river-beds, tanks, or wells, but there are no irrigation works constructed on a scale sufficiently large to give permanent benefit to wide areas of country. Within the last few years some steps have been taken in this direction, but the broken character of the greater part of the country does not readily lend itself to such schemes. In the year 1880-81, out of a total area of 24,839,908 acres of cultivable land, excluding Sind, the area under irrigation was thus classified: irrigated garden lands, 409,127 acres; rice lands irrigated from tanks and watercourses, 147,551 acres; total irrigated, 556,678 acres. The irrigation system of Sind will be described in the separate article on that Province. The most important works which have been already carried out, and which are in progress, in Bombay Proper are the following:—The Kistna (Krishna) Canal in Satára District, formed by throwing a masonry dam across the bed of the river; the Háthmati Canal in Ahmadábád District; the improvement of the Khári river irrigation; the works for the water supply of the Government saltworks at Khárágora near the Rann of Cutch; works for the purpose of increasing the efficiency of the Palkher Canál

in Násik District; the works at the Waghar tank in the same District; the works at the Bhadalvári tank in Poona District; the works at the Ashti tank in Sholápur District; the Sholápur municipal waterworks; the works at the Nira and Mhasmad tanks in Satára District; a canal in Belgáum District; the Ekruk Tank in Sholápur, formed by an earthen dam across the entire valley of the Adela; and the waterworks at Kharakwásla, destined to irrigate the surrounding fields as well as to supply water to the city of Poona. The severe famine of 1877 has drawn increased attention to this important subject, and plans have been prepared for the construction of irrigation works in all parts of the Presidency, to be commenced as funds permit. In 1880–81, the total expenditure on irrigation works through the Public Works Department was £232,830. Of this sum, £211,869 was contributed from Imperial revenue, £19,613 from Native States, private individuals, and municipalities, and £1349 from local funds. The direct revenue from irrigation during the same period was £26,726. The 24 irrigation works constructed by the Public Works Department in Gujarát and the Deccan command an area of 224,000 acres of irrigable land, though the area actually irrigated in 1880–81 was only 34,444 acres.

The land revenue system of Bombay is based upon the principle of measuring every field separately, and assessing it at a sum fixed for a term of thirty years, the amount of assessment being determined by the quality of the soil and the crop. This plan was first introduced in 1836, in the case of the Indápur *táluk* of Poona District, and has since been gradually extended over the greater part of the Presidency. It differs from the method adopted in the North-Western Provinces, in that the assessment is made direct with the individual cultivators, and not with the village community; and it differs from the *rayatwárí* system of Madras, by not requiring a modification of the assessment every year. Prior to the introduction of the revenue survey, general anarchy prevailed, both with regard to the rights possessed by different parties in the soil, and also with regard to the proportion of the produce payable to Government. The immediate result of the change was to improve the condition of the cultivator. He has received a right of occupancy in his holding, on the condition of payment of the Government revenue. This right of occupancy, commonly known as 'the survey tenure,' has been described as 'a transferable and heritable property continuable without question at the expiration of a settlement lease, on the occupier's consenting to the revised rate.' The average rates o[f] assessment are—Rs. 0. 12. 7 or 1s. 7d. per acre on dry crops; Rs. 3. 11. 4 or 7s. 5d. on garden lands; and Rs. 3. 9. 5 or 7s. 2d. on rice lan[d]. The maximum on dry-crop lands is Rs. 2. 3. 4 or 4s. 5d. per ac[re] in the rich black country of Gujarát, and the minimum is Rs. 0. 6.

or 9¾d. in the barren hill-tracts of the Konkan. Within the last few years the terms of assessment in the Districts earliest settled have begun to fall in, and consequently a revision of the assessment has become necessary; and this is now being carried on in the Districts of Násik, Ahmadnagar, Poona, Sholápur, Belgáum, Dhárwár, and Kaládgi.

In the course of the inquiries it has been discovered that the cultivator has not reaped all the advantages that had been hoped from the simplicity of the system. His chronic condition of indebtedness to the village money-lender has produced consequences not dissimilar to those caused by the *zamíndárí* system in Bengal. No intermediate rights in the soil have been suffered to grow up between the cultivator and the State; but the personal obligations under which the cultivator has placed himself towards his money-lender enable the latter to appropriate to himself the unearned increment as completely as if he were a landlord. The system, although framed with the best intentions, put the machinery of our Courts at the disposal of the astute creditors as against an ignorant peasantry. During some years, the cultivators were sold off the land without mercy; agrarian outrages took place; and the Legislature was at length compelled to interfere in favour of the tillers of the soil. The Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Acts have placed them under a modified procedure for the recovery of debts; protected their holdings from sale; and endeavoured to work out a plan which would satisfy as far as possible the dues of the creditor from the yearly produce of the debtor's fields without altogether driving the debtor off the land. The rigidity of our revenue system, and its want of elasticity in the Deccan Districts, which are peculiarly exposed to the vicissitudes of the rainfall, are also said to bear heavily on the peasantry. The increase of revenue resulting from the resettlement operations in the Districts named above, up to 1881–82, is returned at £1,023,503.

Side by side with the survey tenure, there exist various forms of landholding which have come down from the days of native rule, though none of them are now prevalent to a wide extent. Among these the *tálukdárí*, *wánta*, *narwádárí* and *málekí* tenures in Gujarát deserve mention. In the Districts of the Southern Konkan, the survey has not yet been introduced. The land is there held by a class of petty landlords called *khóts*, whose rights as against the Government have not yet been finally determined. The non-regulation Province of Sind enjoys a modified land system of its own. The greater part of the land is cultivated by peasant proprietors. The rates of assessment depend to a large extent on a steady but not excessive overflow from the Indus, and payment in cash has been substituted for the old practice of an actual division of the crop.

The Famine of 1876–77 was felt throughout the Deccan and South Maráthá country, though less severely than in the adjoining Districts

of Madras (*q.v.*) and Mysore. The same set of meteorological causes operated over all Southern India. The total rainfall of the year was everywhere deficient, but the disastrous effect upon agriculture was determined mainly by local variations. The harvest of 1875 had also been below the average, so that the pressure of high prices fell upon a population already impoverished. In 1876 the summer rains of the south-west monsoon, which commence in June, were scanty. But the effects of this monsoon on cultivation are chiefly confined to the Konkan and Malabár coast, where the normal rainfall is so excessive that little injury was wrought by the deficiency. The autumn rains of the north-east monsoon, upon which the table-land behind the Gháts is mainly dependent, failed altogether. At Poona the heavy rain, which usually falls continuously during September and October, was represented by only two moderately wet days. The result was a general failure in the winter crops, over an area in this Presidency estimated at 39,000 square miles, with a population of nearly six million souls. Serious distress began in November 1876, and lasted for about twelve months. In April 1877, the number of people employed by Government on relief works was 287,000. In July of the same year, the persons in the receipt of gratuitous relief numbered 160,000. The District most affected was Kaládgi, bordering on the Nizám's dominions, where the relieved numbered 14 per cent. of the total population. But these vague figures convey but an inadequate idea of the general impoverishment produced by this disastrous year. The statistics of the Bombay mint show in a decisive manner how even the well-to-do portion of the population suffered. In the two years 1877 and 1878, the total value of silver ornaments and disused coin brought into the mint as bullion exceeded 2¼ millions sterling, against only £4000 in the previous year. No interference with private trade was attempted. The Government endeavoured to provide work for the starving population. But notwithstanding the wages offered, and the supplies of food brought into the Districts, the calamity proved beyond the power of administrative control, and hundreds of thousands died of starvation. The deaths in the two famine years 1877 and 1878 in the Bombay Presidency, excluding Sind, are estimated to have been 800,000 in excess of the usual number. The opportunity was taken to push on schemes of irrigation and other remunerative public works which had long previously been matured on paper.

Manufactures.—The two great manufactures carried on in this Presidency are cotton goods and salt; the latter is to a large extent manufactured departmentally. Indigo is made to some extent at Khairpur in Sind. Apart from the new industry of cotton spinning and weaving by means of steam machinery, the manufacture of coarse cotton cloth *sá*[ris] and *pagrís* in hand-looms is still conducted in almost every village throu[gh]

out Bombay. A curious distinction in this respect separates the Gujaráthí and Maráthí speaking races. The former prefer their cotton goods printed, while the latter wear only stuffs that have been dyed in the thread. The decoration generally consists of a simple border, but the more expensive articles are frequently finished off with silk, or with gold and silver lace. Sind weavers are reckoned the most skilful. The best *sáris* or women's robes are printed at Ahmadábád and Surat. Even to the present day the majority of the population wear home-spun and home-woven goods; but within the past few years, the twists and yarns produced in the Bombay mills have found great favour with native weavers. A peculiar mode of ornamenting cotton and silk goods, known as *chindári*, is common throughout the Presidency. The cloth, after being once dyed, is marked with the desired pattern, the outline of which is picked and twisted so as to form a raised surface; the cloth is then again put into the vat to be dyed a fresh colour, and when taken out the raised threads are removed, leaving the pattern of the original colour underneath. Carpets, rugs, horse-cloth, towels, napkins, etc., are manufactured in the jails throughout the Presidency, especially in Sind. Ahmadnagar is celebrated for its carpets, and Khándesh and Dhárwár for drugget rugs and bullock-cloths. The raw material employed in manufactures of silk is imported from China. The chief seats of silk-weaving are Ahmadábád, Surat, Poona, Násik, and Yeola. The two first of these places produce *kinkhábs*, or brocades of silk and gold and silver thread, which are famous throughout India; the three last have a reputation for silk or cotton *sáris*, finished off with rich borders of gold, silver, or silk lace, and beautifully filled in with designs executed on the looms. The silk *dhotars* and *pitámbars* of Yeola are in great request. The preparation of gold and silver thread is performed with great skill. It is said that one rupee's worth of silver can be drawn out into a thread 800 yards in length. The metallic thread is either twisted with silk before being used in the looms, or sometimes beaten out flat to form a warp by itself. The embroidery of various articles with gold and silver thread for the use of the Muhammadan and Pársí communities, or for the European market, is carried on at Haidarábád in Sind, in Káthiáwár, and at Baroda, Surat, and Bombay. The manufacture of coarse paper from raw vegetable fibres is conducted in several of the large towns, especially at Ahmadábád and Baroda; also at smaller local centres, such as Junar in Poona District. The manufacture of coir rope is an industry which thrives in the Konkan and Kánara, and coarse *kamblís* or blankets are made in Khándesh, Násik, Sholápur, and Ratnagiri. Toys in ivory and clay are made in Surat and Poona, and the carpets of Sind enjoy a wide reputation. Among articles of leather work may be mentioned the *debaro*, or large vessel used for holding oil, etc., which is formed by stretching a

fresh skin round an inner mould of clay. Saddle covers and cloths, shoes, leggings, blankets, felts, and accoutrements are made in Sind, and the ancient manufacture of shields at Ahmadábád has not yet entirely died out. The common pottery of the Presidency is of a very rude description, but Sind produces some of the best potters' ware of all India. The art is thought to have been introduced by the Amírs, or former Muhammadan rulers, whose mosques and tombs attest the degree of excellence attained. The Bombay School of Art is now successfully promoting the revival of this industry. Special qualities of pottery are made at Patan in the State of Baroda, and at Ahmadábád. Násik and Poona are celebrated for their brass-ware. Bombay city and Ahmadábád also turn out large quantities of brass utensils, which are hammered by native workmen out of sheets imported from Europe. In the department of cutlery, spear-heads are made at Ahmadnagar, and hunting-knives, swords, and chain armour in Cutch, Káthiáwár, and Baroda. Ironwork, besides cutlery, is still hammered with great skill at Ahmadábád, where the beautiful gates of the tomb of Sháh Alam afford an example of an extinct industry in perforated brasswork. Fine art is represented by a large number of ornamented articles manufactured in all parts of the Presidency. The personal decorations of the women of Gujarát are distinguished by solidity, and those of Maráthí women by intricacy of design. The Muhammadans and Pársís also have each styles of ornament peculiar to themselves. The goldsmiths' work of Sind is very beautiful. The embossed gold and silver work of the Cutch workmen is much sought after, and they have established a colony at Ahmadábád and Bombay. Ahmadábád and Surat are also celebrated for wood-carving. Most of the houses are ornamented in this way, and furniture and boxes are carved in ebony and blackwood. The best sandal-wood carving comes from Kúmptá (Coompta) in Kánara. Sculpture has been practised by the stonecutters of Cutch and Káthiáwár from time immemorial. The more elaborate portions of the stonework on the recently erected public buildings in Bombay were executed by these workmen, trained in the School of Art and the Public Works Department.

Cotton Mills.—Within the last twenty years the spinning and weaving of cotton by steam machinery, and under European supervision, has become an important industry. The local cotton mills have certain natural advantages. Both the raw material and the market for the manufactured produce lie at their feet. The first mill was started in Bombay in 1857; and according to the latest returns, there are now (1881) 36 mills at work in Bombay city and its suburbs, and 13 in other parts of the Presidency, not including those in contemplation or in course of erection. These 49 mills employ a total of 1,237,536 spindles and 13,046 looms; and probably consume about 157,000 *khandis*

(candies) of 784 lbs. each of cotton. They are almost without exception the property of joint-stock companies. The hours of work for the operatives are from six in the morning to six at night, with an hour allowed in the middle of the day for meals and smoking. A Factory Act regulates the hours of labour for children. The average number of hands employed is 37,567; and the average wages per month are, for a girl, 10s.; a woman, 16s.; a man, £1, 12s. The natives are gradually learning to qualify themselves for the posts requiring superior skill, which are at present mostly occupied by operatives brought from England. Besides supplying the local demand, these cotton mills are beginning to find a market in foreign countries, especially for their twist and yarn, which meets with much favour. During the year 1880-81, the exports of Indian twist were 26,442,671 lbs., valued at £1,260,296, of which by far the larger portion was sent to China. The value of the exported piece-goods manufactured at the mills of the Presidency was returned in the same year at £405,370.

Roads and Railways.—The roads throughout the Presidency are chiefly constructed and maintained out of local funds by the agency of the District officers. A two-thirds share of the 1 *ánná* cess levied on every rupee of land revenue is set apart for this purpose, and augmented by contributions from tolls, ferries, etc. In 1880-81, the receipts of the District Road Fund amounted to £229,560, and the expenditure to £224,782. Certain trunk roads, and the construction of important buildings and bridges, are under the charge of the Public Works Department, which in the same year expended £298,219, of which £80,014 was appropriated to original works, and £165,287 to repairs. The total expenditure on Public Works (including establishment) in the Bombay Presidency in the year 1880-81, was £640,186 in the Roads and Buildings branch; the outlay on military works was £144,712. Works for the protection against the sea of the harbour defences at Manora Point at Karáchí are in progress, as well as the improvement of the fortifications of Bombay harbour. At the close of the year 1880-81, there were 3150¾ miles of railway open under the Government of Bombay. This does not include any of the railways in Sind, which are now under the administration of the Government of India. There were 100 miles under construction at the end of 1880-81, and 227 under survey. The two chief railways under the control of the Bombay Government are the Great Indian Peninsula, with 1287 miles open in 1881; and the Bombay, Baroda and Central Indian, with 421 miles. Both these are guaranteed railways of the standard gauge of 5 feet 6 inches; and both have their terminus in Bombay Island. The former, after running a few miles east of Thána, bifurcates into two branches at Kalyan. One of these branches runs north-east *via* the Thal Ghát

[*Sentence continued on p.* 64.

Foreign Trade of the Bombay Presidency for 1880–81.

Imports.		Quantity.	Value.
Agricultural Implements,		...	£2,043
Animals, living,	No.	1,938	46,243
Apparel,		...	237,495
Arms and ammunition,		...	31,127
Books, etc.,	cwt.	4,595	54,803
Building and engineering materials,		...	42,693
Candles,	lbs.	592,593	21,169
Clocks and watches,	No.	40,231	47,760
Coal and coke,	tons	512,533	944,160
Coral,	lbs.	9,328	5,515
Cork,	cwt.	889	12,812
Cotton, raw,	,,	56,821	145,550
,, twist and yarn,	lbs.	12,193,538	933,761
,, piece-goods (grey),	yds.	349,863,875	3,996,248
,, ,, (white),	,,	92,217,624	1,194,716
,, ,, (coloured),	,,	123,428,855	2,048,025
,, sundry manufactured,		...	258,361
Drugs and medicines,		...	158,851
Dyes and colouring materials,	cwt.	2,320,840	176,896
Earthenware and pottery,		...	45,032
Flax, manufactured,	yds.	1,317,975	51,569
,, other sorts,	lbs	40,855	6,348
Fruits and vegetables,		...	15,121
Glass and glassware,		...	205,114
Gums and resins,	cwt.	63,143	102,098
Hardware and cutlery,		...	256,760
Instruments and apparatus,		...	45,160
Ivory,		...	210,846
Jewellery,		...	150,574
Leather,		...	82,962
Liquors, all kinds,	gals.	821,418	478,502
Machinery,		...	258,091
Matches,		...	44,911
Metals, copper,	cwt.	160,870	669,815
,, iron,	,,	1,130,571	666,328

Exports.		Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Merchandise.			
Cotton, twist and yarn,	lbs.	571,451	£42,626
,, piece-goods, grey,	yds.	13,627,919	192,277
,, ,, white,	,,	5,324,388	82,053
,, ,, coloured,	,,	39,661,912	842,144
,, sundry manufactured,	lbs.	...	9,443
Gums and resins,	cwt.	26,994	50,243
Ivory,		...	87,396
Iron,	,,	62,424	68,959
Sugar,	,,	109,535	193,938
Miscellaneous,		...	801,900
Total,		...	£2,370,979
Indian Produce and Manufactures.			
Animals, living,		...	£35
Apparel,		...	31,376
Coffee,	cwt.	44,801	168,084
Coir,	,,	35,498	28,396
Cotton, raw,	,,	3,324,913	10,064,825
,, twist and yarn,	lbs.	26,442,671	1,260,296
,, piece-goods,	yds.	...	405,370
Drugs and medicines,		...	13,861
Indigo,	cwt.	3,464	63,479
Other dyes,	,,	210,337	97,200
Gram,	,,	91,880	36,654
Rice, husked,	,,	958,624	435,584
Wheat,	,,	3,484,535	1,763,104
Other food-grains,	,,	516,747	173,837
Gums and resins,	,,	124	213
Hemp, raw,	,,	31,268	28,963
,, manufactured,		...	221

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY FOR 1880-81—*continued.*

Imports.		Quantity.	Value.
Metals, lead,	cwt.	9,120	£10,350
,, steel,	,,	46,517	38,147
,, tin,	,,	6,411	34,147
,, zinc,	,,	44,392	48,803
,, other sorts,	,,	101,731	46,694
Oils,	gals.	4,060,209	219,919
Paints and colours,		...	86,214
Paper and pasteboard,		...	207,581
Provisions,		...	512,685
Railway plant,		...	850,954
Salt,	tons	41	472
Shells,		...	26,603
Silk, raw,	lbs.	2,064,791	876,164
,, manufactured,		...	583,892
Spices,	,,	3,370,592	167,364
Sugar,	cwt.	2,965	1,102
Tea,	lbs.	2,748,239	242,927
Tobacco and cigars,	,,	362,746	24,416
Toys and games,		...	38,507
Umbrellas,	No.	794,589	64,427
Wood and timber,		...	17,847
Wool, raw,	lbs.	2,775,554	72,343
,, manufactured,	yds.	4,000,720	387,056
,, other sorts,		...	27,086
All other articles,		...	2,188,870
Treasure { Gold,		...	2,544,088
Treasure { Silver,		...	4,176,044
Total,		...	£27,140,166
Government stores,		...	1,555,684
Grand total,		...	£28,695,850

Exports.		Quantity.	Value.
Hides and skins,		...	£443,122
Jewellery, etc.,		...	21,246
Jute, raw,		...	341
,, manufactured,		...	10,378
Lac, shell,		...	1,832
Oils,	gals.	417,592	73,065
Opium,	chests	35,662	5,903,113
Provisions,		...	118,103
Saltpetre,	cwt.	592	329
Seeds,	,,	3,456,934	2,325,797
Silk, raw,	lbs.	31,044	5,466
,, manufactured,			37,327
Spices,	lbs.	5,551,432	128,793
Stone and marble,	cwt.	2,432	2,050
Sugar,	,,	9,953	12,505
Tea,	,,	276,536	26,668
Tobacco and cigars,	lbs.	4,077,067	67,368
Wax,	cwt.	1,874	16,116
Wood,			35,680
Wool, raw,	lbs.	22,381,797	1,013,251
,, manufactured,			164,152
Miscellaneous,			296,866
Total,			£25,275,176
Treasure and Government Stores.			
Gold,		...	7,137
Silver,		...	866,911
Government stores and treasure,		...	41,832
Grand total,		...	£28,592,035

[*ntence continued from p. 61.*]
rough Násik and Khándesh Districts, and after again bifurcating at husáwal, passes into Berár and the Central Provinces, where it joins e East Indian extension at Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The other original ranch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Kalyan Junction urns south-east, and, after climbing into the Deccan by the Bhor Ghát below Poona (Púna), finally joins the Madras Railway. In 1880, the net earnings of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway within the Presidency amounted to £1,110,555; the gross expenditure amounted to £1,384,770. Up to the same year the cost of construction amounted to £21,311,591; cost of rolling stock, £3,686,128; stores, £591,891. The Dhond and Manmád State Railway, 145 miles in length, connects the northern and southern branches of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway by a chord line above the Gháts at Dhond and Manmád stations from which it takes its name. This chord line was constructed as a State line, but the Great Indian Peninsula Railway now works it. It admits of traffic between Madras and Northern India, without compelling passengers and goods to descend and re-ascend the Bombay Gháts. The Bombay, Baroda and Central Indian Railway runs due north along the sea-coast past the cities of Surat, Broach, and Baroda, and terminates at Pálanpur, with a westerly branch from Ahmadábád to Viramgám. This line lies wholly within the limits of the Bombay Presidency. Up to 1881, the total capital expended upon it has been £8,473,162; the gross receipts were for the year £824,437, and the expenses £350,972, leaving as net earnings £473,465. The Pátri State Railway, 22 miles, leaves this line at Viramgám terminus in a north-westerly direction; while the Káthiáwár and Bháunagar-Gondal line, 194 miles, leaves the same terminus in a direction first south for a distance of 100 miles, and then west through the peninsula of Káthiáwár, to the terminus at Dhorájí. The Rájputána State Railway, with a total length of 717 miles from Ahmadábád to Ajmere, Delhi and Agra, northwards, has been made over to the charge of the Bombay Government. The total length of the State Railway lines under the Government of Bombay at the end of 1881, was 1188 miles. The Rájputána-Málwá Railway, 389 miles, from Khandwa station on the north-eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, to Neemuch, Nasírábád and Ajmere, has since been transferred to the control of the Bombay Government. Other small lines of narrow gauge, aggregating a length of about 60 miles, and belonging to the Gáekwár of Baroda, branch off from the main line of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway. There are no navigable canals in the Presidency, but the main channel of the Indus is kept open by the State at an annual cost of about £6000.

Commerce and Trade.—The table on pages 62 and 63 gives th

pal items of the import and export trade of the Bombay Presidency, ding Sind, for the year 1880–81.

he total sea-borne foreign trade of Bombay Presidency, including imports and exports, reached a total value of £57,287,885. ese figures are exclusive of the coasting trade, which in 1880–81 ounted to a total value of £15,450,126 imports, and £14,723,700 ports; total, £30,173,826; grand total, £87,461,711. The reign trade, exclusive of treasure and Government stores, was thus istributed among the chief countries:—United Kingdom—imports £18,041,382, exports £7,860,205; China—imports £2,698,896, exports £7,483,278; Mauritius—imports £1,239,531, exports £99,168; Arabia—imports £885,218, exports £715,881 Persia—imports £528,425, exports £1,004,681; Italy—imports £1,036,027, exports £2,031,869; France—imports £416,844, exports £3,579,113; United States—imports £230,639, exports £8609; Ceylon—imports £79,133, exports £88,331; Austria—imports £366,820, exports £1,476,689; Straits Settlements—imports £182,701, exports £271,653; other countries—imports £1,434,518, exports £3,026,677. The number of vessels that entered the ports of Bombay Presidency with cargoes from foreign countries during the year 1880–81 was 1500, with a tonnage of 1,070,358 tons, of which 647 vessels (773,117 tons) were steam vessels. In addition, 45 vessels, with a tonnage ot 38,049 tons, entered in ballast. The coasting trade was carried on by 84,812 vessels, with a tonnage of 2,026,645 tons, of which 83,049 vessels (1,296,173 tons) were native craft. Excluding the two great harbours of Bombay and Karáchí, the remaining ports in the Presidency are divided into two groups—the northern, comprising 22 ports between Gogo and the Bassein creek; and the southern, which includes 51 ports between Bassein and Bhatkál, in North Kánara. About four-fifths of the coasting trade is conducted by the southern group.

Administration.—The Government of the Presidency of Bombay is administered by a Governor and his Council. This body is the chief executive and legislative authority of the Presidency, and consists of the Governor as President, the Commander-in-Chief of the Bombay Presidency, and two members of the Covenanted Civil Service. The various departments of the administration are portioned out among the several members of Council, and for each department there is a separate secretariat staff. There is also a Legislative Council, composed of the Governor and his Executive Council above described, together with four to eight other members nominated by the Governor. Not less than a certain proportion of these additional Legislative members of the Council must be non-officials, with a view to the representation of the European and native communities. For administrative purpo

the Presidency is divided into four Divisions, called the Northern (7 Districts), Central (7 Districts, including Bombay city and island), and Southern (5 Districts), in Bombay Proper, and the Sind Division of 5 Districts; these Divisions embrace (including Bombay city and island) 24 Districts, each Division being placed under the control and superintendence of a Commissioner. The District is the actual unit of administration for both fiscal and judicial purposes. The Regulation Districts of Bombay number 17, each under the control of a Magistrate-Collector, who must be a member of the Covenanted Civil Service. The Province of Sind, and the Pánch-Maháls in Gujarát, form 7 non-regulation Districts, under officers who may be either military, covenanted or uncovenanted servants. The city of Bombay is regarded for many purposes as forming a District by itself. Each District is on the average divided into 10 *táluks*, or Sub-divisions, each of which again contains about 100 Government villages, or villages of which the revenue has not been alienated by the State. Every village is, for fiscal and police, as well as social purposes, complete by itself. It has its regular complement of officials, who are usually hereditary, and are remunerated by grants of land held revenue free. The more important of these officials are the *pátel* or head-man; the *taláti* or *kulkarni*, who is the clerk and accountant; the *mhár*, who is a kind of beadle; and the watchman. Over each *táluk* or Sub-division is set a Government officer termed a *mámlatdár;* and on an average about 3 *táluks* are placed in charge of an Assistant or Deputy Collector. General supervision is exercised by the Commissioners, as above stated, who are 3 for the Regulation Districts and 1 for Sind. The supreme administration of justice in the Regulation Districts is entrusted to the High Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and seven Puisne Judges. This Court exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases. In Sind, the same functions are discharged by the Judicial Commissioner. The superior administration of both civil and criminal justice is vested in officials styled District and Assistant District Judges. Original civil suits (if not against the Government) are decided as a rule by two classes of Subordinate Judges, and by the Small Cause Courts; and the greater part of the original criminal work is disposed of by the executive District officers, who in addition to their revenue duties are entrusted with magisterial powers. The remaining principal departments of Government are the police, public works, forests, education, jails, registration and medical departments, each of which possesses an organization extending throughout all the different Districts of the Presidency.

The Political relations between the Government and the Native States in connection with the Bombay Presidency are maintained by the presence of an Agent or representative at the principal Native Courts

The position and duty of the Agent varies very considerably in the different States, being governed by the terms of the original treaties, or by recent *sanads* or patents. In some instances, as in Cutch, his power is confined to the giving of advice, and to the exercise of a general surveillance. In other cases the Agent is invested with an actual share in the administration; while States whose rulers are minors—and the number of these is always large—are directly managed by Government officers. The characteristic feature of the Bombay Native States is the excessive number of petty principalities, such as those of the Rájput and Bhíl chieftains. The peninsula of Káthiáwár alone contains no less than 187 separate States. The recognition of these innumerable jurisdictions is due to the circumstance that the early Bombay administrators were induced to treat the *de facto* exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction by a landholder as carrying with it a quasi-sovereign status. The rule of succession by primogeniture applies only to the larger principalities, and consequently the minor States are continually suffering disintegration.

The Bombay army in 1881 consisted of a strength of 13,082 Europeans and 26,730 natives; total, 39,812 fighting men. This force was made up of 1 regiment of European and 9 regiments of native cavalry; 47 European and 541 native sappers; 23 batteries of European artillery with 96 guns, and 2 of native artillery with 12 guns (the heavy ordnance in Bombay island, Karáchí and Aden not included); 11 regiments of European and 30 of native infantry. The military Divisions and Districts of the Presidency are as follow: Poona (Púna) Division, with 9 stations, head-quarters Poona; Northern Division, with 11 stations, head-quarters Ahmadábád; Aden Brigade, head-quarters Aden; Belgáum District, with 4 stations, head-quarters Belgáum; Bombay District, with 5 stations, head-quarters Bombay city; and Sind District, head-quarters Karáchí; and there are besides several cantonment stations, including Mau (Mhow), Nímach (Neemuch), Nasírábád (Nusseerábád), and Dísá (Deesa), in Central India, which all lie beyond the geographical limits of the Presidency. The military convalescent stations are Purandhar on the hills, and Kolába and Ghizri Bandar on the sea-coast. In the year 1880–81, the total military expenditure amounted to £5,428,599, of which £540,683 belonged to the European, and £719,844 to the native army; £1,760,629 was devoted to effective services, £136,122 to non-effective services, including pensions, and the remainder, £2,271,321, to the war in Afghánistán.

The Bombay Marine in 1881 consisted of ten steam vessels, two hulks in ordinary, and two ironclad turret monitors (the *Abyssinia* and the *Magdala*) for the defence of Bombay harbour. The total establishment consisted of about 700 officers and men. Of the ten steam vessels mentioned above, two were stationed at Aden, and two in the

Persian Gulf. The total receipts for 1880-81 of the shipping office amounted to £3258, against an expenditure of £1408. The total expenditure during the year 1880-81 of the Bombay Port Trust was £270,394, including a sum of £121,534 for interest to be paid in 1881-82, against which must be set off receipts amounting to £276,682.

The Police consists of several distinct forces,—the Regular District Police, the Bombay City Police, the Railway Police, and the Village Watch. The last-mentioned body is maintained only in certain parts of the country, at the expense of the villagers, and is not directly under the control of Government. The Bombay City Police will be treated of in the separate article on Bombay City. The following figures, therefore, only apply to the Regular and the Railway Police. In the year 1880-81, these two forces consisted of a strength of 3280 officers and 16,353 men—total, 19,633; being 1 man to every 6·4 square miles as compared with the area of the Presidency, or 1 to every 810 of the population. The proportion of police to area is largest in the Pánch Mahála District of Gujarát (Guzerát), where it is 1 to 2·07 square miles, and least in the Thar and Párkar District of Sind, where it is 1 to 26·0 square miles. The total cost was £324,967, of which £297,785 was met from Provincial revenues, and £27,182 was payable from other sources than Provincial revenue, showing an average cost of £2, 12s. 4d. per square mile of area, and 4¼d. per head of population. Of the total force, 45 per cent. were armed with firearms, and 34 per cent. with swords, the rest having only batons. In 1880-81, the total number of cases of cognizable crime reported was 62,487; 53,428 persons were arrested and 48,923 put on their trial, of whom 42 per cent. were convicted. The total number of non-cognizable cases was 2089; 3368 persons were arrested or summoned, of whom 1547 were convicted. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences.

Jails.—In 1881, there were altogether 27 jails in Bombay Presidency, including the common jail and the house of correction in Bombay city, the central jail at Yerauda near Poona (Púna), and the jail at Aden; and 78 subordinate lock-ups. In that year the daily average prison population was 11,236, of whom 536 were women. These figures show 1 prisoner always in jail to every 1464 of the population, and 1 woman in jail to every 14,845 of the female population. The number of deaths was 493, or 4·4 per cent. of the average strength. The gross total expenditure, exclusive of the sum expended on subordinate jails, was £89,702, or £6, 19s. 3¾d. per head. The expenditure on subordinate jails was £2596. Jail manufactures, including garden work and extramural labour, yielded a net profit o £20,337.

Revenue and Expenditure of the Bombay Presidency for 1880–81.

Receipts.		Expenditure.	
Imperial.	£	*Imperial.*	£
Land Revenue,	3,090,029	Interest on Service Funds,	84,972
Tribute and Contributions,	131,925	Refunds and Drawbacks,	67,596
Forests,	152,280	Forests,	111,878
Assessed Taxes,	98,006	Salt,	35,554
Customs,	782,129	Opium,	1,916
Salt,	1,495,816	Mint,	41,797
Opium,	2,526,374	Administration,	38,401
Mint,	64,326	Minor Departments,	8,114
Police,	29	Police,	3,819
Stationery and Printing,	1,784	Marine,	158,983
Interest,	163,957	Stationery and Printing,	3,960
Receipts in aid of Superannuation and other allowances,	39,456	Political Agencies,	74,859
Miscellaneous,	10,473	Allowances and Assignments,	132,270
Gain by Exchange,	53,007	Civil Furlough Allowances,	1,734
Post-Office,	288,835	Superannuation,	71,022
Military,	243,797	Miscellaneous,	5,320
Marine,	28,618	Post-Office,	374,148
Public Works,	12,164	Loss by Exchange,	594,462
Irrigation,	26,726	Public Works,	175,757
Telegraph,	156,454	Irrigation,	150,738
		Telegraphs,	167,108
		Bombay Army,*	5,432,957
Total,	9,368,265	Total,	7,737,365
Provincial Funds.		*Provincial Funds.*	
Land Revenue,	665,017	Refunds,	27,780
Excise,	549,839	Land Revenue,	64[illegible],990
Assessed Taxes,	40,553	Excise,	18,753
Customs,	8,541	Assessed Taxes,	2,470
Salt,	4,388	Customs,	81,342
Stamps,	421,536	Salt,	55,210
Registration,	27,931	Stamps,	18,598
Minor Departments,	2,130	Registration,	22,258
Law and Justice,	90,553	Mint,	26
Police,	24,034	Post-Office,	8,927
Marine,	5, 02	Administration,	122,539
Education,	22,105	Minor Departments,	11,514
Medical,	8,944	Law and Justice,	521,800
Stationery and Printing,	3,955	Police,	405,585
Interest,	5,713	Marine,	7,111
Superannuation,	13,119	Education,	100,289
Miscellaneous,	7,805	Ecclesiastical,	32,703
Other Public Works,	60,998	Medical,	117,648
Contributions, Imperial and Local Funds,	1,471,586	Stationery and Printing,	46,026
		Political Agencies,	386
		Allowances and Assignments,	691,383
		Superannuation,	103,379
		Miscellaneous,	26,701
		Other Public Works,	245,594
		Contributions, Imperial and Local,	80,843
Total,	3,433,849	Total,	3,395,855
Local Funds.		*Local Funds.*	
District Road Funds,	229,560	District Road Fund,	224,782
District Educational Fund,	124,380	District Educational Fund,	118,624
Fund for Pensions,	5,695	Indus Conservancy Fund,	5,032
Port Fund,	26,859	Port Fund,	39,428
Cantonment Fund,	10,022	Cantonment Fund,	9,702
Indus Conservancy,	5,268	Miscellaneous,	17,106
Miscellaneous,	16,226		
Total,	418,010	Total,	414,674
Municipal Funds.		*Municipal Funds.*	
Bombay Municipality,	325,187	Bombay Municipality,	305,792
Other Municipalities,	272,633	Other Municipalities,	281,520
Total,	597,820	Total,	587,312
Grand Total,	13,817,944	Grand Total,	12,135,206

* This item shows an increase of £2,271,318 over that of the previous year, due entirely to the war in Afghánistán.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The table on the previous page shows the revenue and expenditure of the Bombay Presidency for the year 1880–81, including provincial, local, and municipal funds.

This table, which has been specially compiled from the materials given in the Administration Report for that year, must not be accepted as an accurate balance-sheet of the finances of the Presidency. For example, the receipts from opium are not, properly speaking, an item of revenue to Bombay, but a tax levied upon the Chinese consumer of a drug which has been produced in Central India. Similarly, on the other side of the account, items of Imperial expenditure, such as the army and interest on debt, are not debited against the Bombay treasury. It must also be observed that the apparently adverse balance in the department of Provincial funds is equalized by a grant of £982,233 from the Imperial exchequer, which sum is again debited as Imperial expenditure in the Bombay accounts.

Education.—The educational system in Bombay, as throughout the rest of India, is based upon the celebrated Despatch of Sir Charles Wood, dated 19th July 1854. It consists on the one hand of a widely distributed class of vernacular or village schools, subsidized by grants-in-aid from Government, and under inspection by the Educational Department; and on the other, of a limited number of institutions, which teach in English up to the curriculum of the University, and are for the most part maintained at Government expense. In the year 1880–81, the total number of schools and colleges in the Presidency was 5343, attended on an average by 223,364 pupils daily, showing 1 school to every 23·2 square miles of area, and 13·8 pupils to every thousand of the population. Of the 41,997 towns and inhabited villages contained in the Presidency and its dependencies, 4154, or about 1 in 10, were provided with schools, and the number of scholars on the rolls at the close of the year was 316,974. Of the whole number of schools, 4398 were Government institutions, 255 private institutions receiving aid from Government, 662 were unaided, but under inspection by Government agency, and 28 were police and jail schools. In these figures are included 9 colleges for higher instruction, 7 technical schools, 9 normal schools, 50 high schools for boys, 2 high schools for girls, and 240 middle-class schools, of which 16 are for girls. The total expenditure of the department amounted to £244,705, of which £108,912 was derived from Provincial funds, and £135,793 from Local funds. In addition, a sum of £70,285 was expended the same year on education by the Native States of the Bombay Presidency. The vernacular schools alone numbered 4705, attended by 275,642 scholars. These are mainly supported by an allotment of one-third of the 1 *ánná* cess on every rupee of the land revenue, augmented by the grant of a lump sum from Government. There were 298 primary girls' schools, with

17,612 pupils, of which nearly one-half are private institutions. Of the total number of the children in schools connected with Government, 2·12 per cent. were Christians, 22·11 Bráhmans, 60·96 other Hindus, 11·32 Muhammadans, 2·59 Pársís, and the remainder were Jews, aborigines, and 'others.' Of the principal races that attend the schools in this Presidency, Bráhmans are the most numerous in proportion to their number, and Hindu cultivators and Muhammadans the least numerous class, except in primary schools, where the proportion of Pársí pupils is the smallest. About one-quarter of the pupils attending educational institutions of the higher classes are sons of Government officials; one-eighth sons of persons of property; one-ninth, sons of private clerks; one-sixteenth, sons of merchants, and the remainder sons of cultivators. The number of pupils learning English was 22,237, and Sanskrit 3295. The most important colleges are, the Elphinstone College in Bombay city, with an average daily attendance of 158 in 1881–82; the Deccan College at Poona, with 120 pupils; the Gujarát College, with an average daily attendance of 17; and the Rájárám College, with an average daily attendance of 18. Among institutions for special instruction may be mentioned—the Law School, with 152 students; the Grant Medical College, with 282; and the Poona College of Science, with 188. The Jamsetjee Jeejebhoy School of Art, with 103 pupils, is also under the Education Department. The Bombay University was founded by Lord Elphinstone in 1857. It consists of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, and senate; and its function is to examine and confer degrees in arts, law, medicine, and engineering. Large endowments have been received at different times from the wealthy merchants of Bombay, by means of which a handsome hall and library have been erected on the esplanade.

The languages spoken in the Bombay Presidency are Maráthí, Gujaráthí, Sindhí, and Kánarese; Urdu or Hindustání is also in common use among the educated and trading Muhammadans. In the year 1880–81, the total number of publications registered was 980, of which 91 were printed in English, and 889 in Oriental languages. The total number of printing-presses was 74, of which as many as 47 are found in Bombay city, and 20 in the Deccan. The number of native newspapers appearing was 73, either printed or lithographed, of which 2 were entirely in English, 11 Anglo-Maráthí, 30 purely Maráthí, 4 Anglo-Gujaráthí, 27 purely Gujaráthí, and the remainder in Urdu, Hindí and Persian. Two of these papers, edited in Bombay city by Pársís, have existed for 57 and 45 years respectively. The leading association for the advancement of learning in the Presidency is the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, originally founded in 1804, with which the Bombay Geographical Society was amalgamated in 1874. The Medical and Physical Society was founded in 1863. The Sassoon

Mechanics' Institute has a reference library of 15,000 volumes. There are altogether 90 libraries registered in the Presidency. In the year 1880–81, the post-offices numbered 735, the letter-boxes 1380, and the total mileage of postal lines was 10,493. The post-office received for delivery a total of 28,084,992 articles. The length of telegraph line at the close of the same year was 1930 miles, and the length of wire 6490 miles in Bombay Proper; in Sind the length of line was 1593, and of wire 4518 miles.

Medical Aspects—Climate.—Great varieties of climate are met with in the Bombay Presidency. In its extreme dryness and heat, combined with the aridity of a sandy soil, Upper Sind resembles the deserts of Arabia. The thermometer here has been known to register 130° F. in the shade. At Haidarábád, in Lower Sind, the mean maximum temperature during the six hottest months in the year is 98·50°; the rise of temperature in the water of the Indus is also remarkable. In Cutch and Gujarát the sultry heat, if not so excessive, is still very trying. Bombay island itself, though in general cooled by the sea-breeze, is oppressively hot during May and October. The Konkan is hot and moist, the fall of rain during the monsoon sometimes reaching 300 inches. The table-land of the Deccan above the Gháts possesses an agreeable climate, as also does the South Maráthá country. On the hills of Mahábaleshwar, Singarh, and other detached heights, Europeans may go out all hours of the day with impunity. According to a series of returns, extending over a period of twenty-eight years, taken at the meteorological station of Kolába, the mean annual temperature is 79·2° F., ranging from 73·6° in the month of January to 84·2° in May; the average annual rainfall is 70·30 inches, of which 70·8 fall in the seven months between May and November. The south-west monsoon generally breaks about the first week in June, and pours down torrents of rain along the coast. From that date up to October the rainy season may be said to last, during which travelling is everywhere difficult and unpleasant, except in Sind, where the monsoon rains exert little influence.

Diseases.—The most prevalent diseases are fevers of various types, including the malarious fevers of Gujarát and Kánara, especially dreaded by Europeans; cholera, which seems to display a curious tendency towards epidemic outbreaks at triennial intervals; bowel complaints, including diarrhœa and dysentery; small-pox, which has recently been checked to some extent by the extension of the practice of vaccination; ague, rheumatic affections, lung diseases, syphilis and various cutaneous disorders. Conservancy arrangements are enforced by the Sanitary and Vaccination Departments, which have been amalgamated, and an official with the title of Deputy Sanitary Commissioner has been placed in every District. The actual outlay in 1880 und

the head of sanitary works, military, amounted to £14,069. The vital statistics are recorded in the several municipalities by the municipal officers, and elsewhere by the village head-men and accountants—except in cantonments and in the province of Sind, where, in the absence of a regular village establishment, the work is done by the ordinary revenue officers; they cannot be accepted as accurate, but they give some indication of the relative mortality from different diseases. During 1880–81, 328,673 deaths were registered throughout the Presidency, giving a death-rate of 20·25 per thousand, as compared with an average of 24·35 for the previous nine years. Of the total number of deaths, 246,779 were assigned to fevers, a very vague term among native practitioners; only 684 to cholera, which in 1878 carried off 46,743, and in 1879, 6937 persons; 24,452 to bowel complaints; and 940 to small-pox: 1179 deaths from snake-bite were recorded in the same year. In the same year 370,873 births were registered, showing a birth-rate of 22·85 per thousand. Calculations based upon the ages of the population yield an average death-rate throughout the Presidency of 35·57 per thousand, and a birth-rate of 41·05. In the year 1880–81, the staff of 431 vaccinators performed 704,984 operations at a total cost of £23,714.

Charitable institutions for medical relief consist of two classes. The Civil Hospitals in 1880–81 numbered 43, at which 307,030 patients were treated. The Dispensaries in 1880–81 numbered 144, of which 6 were in Native States; they were attended by 893,366 patients. The total expenditure on these dispensaries was £24,171. There were 5 Lunatic Asylums in the Presidency, with 913 inmates in the year 1881. The expenditure was £9140, or an average of £15 per head.

Bombay.—The city of Bombay, the capital of the Presidency of Bombay, and the principal seaport of Western India, is situated on an island in 18° 55′ 5″ N. lat., and 72° 53′ 55″ E. long. Bombay island is one of a group (perhaps that called Heptanesia by Arrian) lying off the coast of the Konkan; but by the recent construction of causeways and breakwaters, it is now permanently united on the north with the larger island of Salsette, and so continuously with the mainland. The remainder of the group of islands constitute a part of Thána District. For certain administrative purposes, Bombay city is regarded as constituting a District by itself, with an area of 22 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 773,196 souls.

Bombay island is in shape a trapezoid. It is popularly likened to a hand laid palm upwards, with the fingers stretching southwards into the sea, and the thumb representing Malabár Hill, with Back Bay between the thumb and forefinger. Others see a resemblance in it to a withered leg, with a very high heel and pointed toe, the heel being Malabár Hill, and the toe Kolába. It is 11½ miles long from the south extremity of Kolába to Lion Causeway, over which the railway passes to the larger

island of Salsette, and from 3 to 4 miles broad in that portion which lies to the north of the esplanade. The portion of Bombay called the Fort, abutting on the harbour, and separated from the native city proper by a large *maidán* or park, is the most important, most English, and busiest quarter of the town.

History.—The name of Bombay was erroneously supposed to have been given by the Portuguese, on account of the geographical position of the island—*Bom-bahia* or *Boa-bahia*, '*statio fidissima nautis.*' Colonel H. Yule, however, traces it back to the latter half of the compound name Tanna-Maiamba or Mayamba, which, according to Barbosa, *circ.* 1516, was used to designate the kingdom of the Konkan in the 16th century. The name appears as Maimbi in the very early geographical *Sommario de Regni*, translated from the Portuguese in Ramudio, written probably 1520–25. There can be little doubt that this word, in its turn, was a corruption of Mamba-devi, a goddess who had a famous shrine in the neighbourhood, mentioned in Forbes' *Rás Málá*, *circ.* 1630. The Portuguese of the 16th century call it Mombain or Bombaim, never Bom-bahia or Boa-bahia. The Maráthá name of Bombay is Mumbaí, from Mahímá, 'Great Mother,' a title of Deví. In support of the popular etymology from Buon Bahia, 'fair haven,' it may be said that Bombay undoubtedly possesses one of the finest harbours in the world. But the evidence leaves little doubt that the true derivation is from the Maráthá Mumbaí, *i.e.* Mahímá, 'the Great Mother,' or Deví. It thus happens that both the great British capitals of India, Bombay on the western coast, and Calcutta (*q.v.*) on the eastern, take their names from titles or designations of the same goddess, the wife of Siva, the lord of death and reproduction.

The history of Bombay begins with the cession of the island by the Portuguese to Charles II. in 1661, as part of the dowry of his queen, Catherine of Braganza. The adjoining islands, however, of Salsette and Karanja still remained in the possession of the Portuguese. At this time the population was estimated at 10,000 souls, and the revenue at 75,000 *xeraphins*, or £6500. The king appears to have found his distant acquisition unprofitable, and in 1668 he transferred it to the East India Company on payment of an annual rent of £10 in gold. The Company forthwith took steps for the strengthening of the fortifications, and the encouragement of European settlers. Dr. Fryer, who visited the island in 1673, describes the population as numbering 60,000—'a mixture of most of the neighbouring countries, mostly rogues and vagabonds.' He has left an elaborate description of the place as it then existed. The fort or castle was armed with 120 pieces of ordnance; and the town, which lay at some distance, was a full mile in length. The greater number of the inhabitants, especially o[f] the suburb of Mazagon, were engaged in fishing. The Portuguese sti[ll]

had several churches on the island. Between Parel and Máhim, the sea had made a wide breach, drowning 40,000 acres of good land. But the most striking point in all the early accounts is the excessive unhealthiness of the place, which cannot be attributed solely to the mode of life of the residents. Fryer declares it as his opinion that out of every 500 Europeans who came to live on the island, not 100 left it. A current proverb affirmed that two monsoons (or rainy seasons) were the age of a man. The most fatal disease, called by the Portuguese practitioners 'the Chinese death,' has been identified with cholera. The name arose, apparently, from a fanciful French or Latin etymology for the '*mordexim*' or '*mor-de-chin*,' the old west-coast term for cholera. Garcia d'Orta (1568) distinctly states that it was an Indian word, *morxi*. It is, in fact, a corruption of the Maráthi and Konkání words *modachi* and *modshi*, meaning cholera.

In Fryer's time (1673) the factory of Surat, established sixty years before the cession of Bombay, was the chief possession of the East India Company in Western India. Bombay itself was exposed to the ill-will of the Portuguese on Salsette island, who were able to cut off all direct communication with the mainland. The most formidable enemy, however, was the Sídí or Abyssinian admiral of the Mughal fleet, whose descendants are represented at the present day by the Nawáb of Janjírá. In 1668, the Sídí wintered at Mazagon, and laid siege to Bombay castle; and the town was only saved by a direct appeal to the Emperor. During this period also, the English in India were greatly hampered by domestic dissensions. In 1684, orders were received to transfer the chief seat of the Company's trade from Surat to Bombay, and the transfer had been effected by 1687. In 1708, the two Companies privileged to trade with the East were fused into the United East India Company, and Bombay was chosen as the seat of one of the three independent Presidencies, each of which was ruled over by a Governor-in-Council. It was not till 1773 that Bombay was subjected to the control of the Governor-General. Henceforth the history of Bombay city merges into that of the Presidency. The only event that need be specially recorded is the first Maráthá war (1774–1782), which resulted, after many military vicissitudes, in the permanent occupation by the English of all the Bombay group of islands, and of the town of Thána on the mainland. The city had long been a refuge for the fugitives from Maráthá oppression, who could there alone find safety for their industry and commerce; but after the downfall of the Peshwá in 1818, Bombay became the capital of a large territory, and from that year may be dated her pre-eminence in Western India. She was especially fortunate in her early governors. From 1819 to 1830, she was ruled successively by the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone and Sir John Malcolm. The first founded the present system of administration; the second, by opening

the road through the Bhor-Ghát, broke down the natural barrier that separated the sea-coast from the table-land of the Deccan. The next stage in the course of onward prosperity was reached when Bombay was brought into direct communication with Europe through the energy and exertions of Lieutenant Waghorn, the pioneer of the Overland Route. In the early years of the present century, express couriers or adventurous travellers used sometimes to make their way to or from India across the isthmus of Suez, or occasionally even through Persia. A monthly mail service was commenced by way of Egypt in 1838, and the contract was first taken up by the Peninsular and Oriental Company in 1855. Bombay is now recognised as the one port of arrival and departure for all the English mails, and also for the troopships of the Indian army. But the city could not have attained this position, if the means of communication on the landward side had not received a corresponding development. In 1850, the first sod was turned of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and three years afterwards the line was opened as far as Thána, the first railway in the country. By 1863, the railway had been led up the formidable Bhor-Ghát to Poona, by a triumph of engineering skill. In 1870, through communication was established with Calcutta, in 1871 with Madras. The city has a successful tramway system. There is now a prospect of more direct railway communication being established, *viâ* Nágpur in the Central Provinces, with Calcutta.

But it is not only as the capital of a Presidency, or as the central point of arrival and departure for Indian travellers, that Bombay has achieved its highest reputation. It is best known as the great cotton market of Western and Central India, to which the manufacturers of Lancashire turned when the American war cut off their supplies. Even in the last century the East India Company was accustomed to export raw cotton as part of its investment, both to the United Kingdom and to China. This trade continued during the early years of the present century, but it was marked by extreme vicissitudes in quantity and price, the demand being entirely determined by the out-turn of the American crop. The war between the Northern and Southern States was declared in 1861, and the merchants and shippers of Bombay promptly took advantage of their opportunity. The exports of cotton rapidly augmented under the stimulus of high prices, until in 1864-65, the last year of the war, they reached a total value of 30 millions sterling, or nearly ten-fold the average of ten years before. Large fortunes were acquired by successful ventures, and the wild spirit of speculation thus engendered spread through all classes of the community. The scenes of the South Sea Bubble were revived. No joint-stock project seemed too absurd to find subscribers. Banks, financial associations, and land companies, each with millions

nominal capital, were started every month, and their shares were immediately run up to fabulous premiums. The crash came in the spring of 1865, when the news was received of the termination of the American war. A panic ensued which baffles description, and the entire edifice of stock exchange speculation came toppling down like a house of cards. Merchants and private individuals were ruined by hundreds, and the quasi-official Bank of Bombay collapsed along with the rest. But despite this sudden flood of disaster, honest trade soon revived on a stable basis; and the city of Bombay at the present day, in its buildings, its docks, and its land reclamations, stands as a monument of the grand schemes of public usefulness which were started during these four years of unhealthy excitement.

General Aspect.—In the beauty of its scenery, as well as in the commercial advantages of its position, Bombay is unsurpassed by any of the cities of the East. The Bombay island, or, as it may now be called, the Bombay peninsula, is connected with the mainland on the north by solid railway embankments. The entrance into the harbour from the sea discloses a magnificent panorama. The background is shut in by the barrier range of the Western Gháts. In front opens the wide harbour, studded with islands and jutting precipices, dotted with the white sails of innumerable native craft, and affording a secure shelter to fleets of tall-masted merchantmen. The city itself consists of well-built houses, and broad streets ennobled by public buildings. The sea-shore is formed by docks, warehouses, and a long line of artificial embankments extending continuously for nearly five miles. On approaching Bombay from the west, there is little to strike the eye. The coast is low, the highest point, Malabár Hill, being only about 180 feet above the sea. But on entering the harbour a stranger is impressed with the picturesqueness of the scene. To the west the shore is crowded with buildings, some of them, as Kolába Church and the Rájábái clock-tower of the University, very lofty and well-proportioned. To the north and east are numerous islands, and pre-eminent amongst the hills, the remarkable one of Báma Malang, otherwise called Mallangarh, on the top of which is an enormous mass of perpendicular rock, crowned with a ruined fort. The harbour is an animated and picturesque scene. There are usually a troopship and a man-of-war of H.M.'s East Indian Squadron, together with numerous large passenger or merchant steamers of the European lines. Among these may be mentioned the Peninsular and Oriental Company's line, the Rubatino (an Italian) line, the British Indian Steam Navigation Company, the Messageries Maritimes, the 'Clan, 'Anchor,' 'Hall,' and 'National' lines. Many other steamers and merchantmen are to be seen riding at anchor, swinging with the swiftly-flowing tide, and discharging or receiving cargo. All kinds of

boats, ship's dingies, steam-launches, native 'bunders,' and 'karachis' incessantly ply on the harbour.

The island consists of a low-lying plain about 11½ miles long by 3 to 4 broad, flanked by two parallel ridges of low hills. Point Kolába, the headland formed by the longer of these ridges, protects the harbour on its eastern side from the force of the open sea. The other ridge terminates in Malabár Hill; and between the two lies the shallow expanse of Back Bay. On a slightly raised strip of land between the head of Back Bay and the harbour is situated the Fort, the original nucleus round which the town grew up, but now chiefly occupied by stately public buildings and commercial offices. From this point the land slopes westward to the central plain, which, before the construction of the embankment known as the Hornby Velard, was liable to be submerged at high tide. To the north and east, recent schemes of reclamation have similarly shut out the sea, and partly redeemed the foreshore for the use of commerce. In the extreme north of the island a large tract of salt marsh still remains unreclaimed.

The Government offices, the business houses, and the shops cluster thickly in the part of the city called the Fort. Many of the public and commercial buildings, constructed during the past twenty years, are of splendid dimensions, and have no rival in any other Indian city, except perhaps Calcutta. The houses in the native *bázár* are also handsomely built, rising three, four, and even six stories in height, with elaborately carved pillars and frontwork. Some of the narrow, unpaved, and crowded streets give an inadequate idea of the real opulence of their inhabitants. But in many of them may be seen evidences of the wealth of the city and of the magnificence of its merchant princes. The most conspicuous line of public buildings is on the esplanade facing Back Bay. Here is the Secretariat, an enormous erection in the Venetian-Gothic style of architecture; the University Senate Hall and clock-tower; the new High Court; the offices of the Public Works Department, the Post and Telegraph Offices. A little inland and behind the Secretariat range of buildings runs the broad thoroughfare of Rampart Row, off which branch many narrow streets containing native and European shops. Rampart Row and its continuation towards the Apollo Bandar (landing-place) form the main line of thoroughfare of the European city of Bombay. Along one side of Rampart Row is a colonnade of arches giving entrance to the Bombay Club, the French Bank, and other buildings. On the opposite side of Rampart Row, which is here fifty or sixty yards broad, rises another line of many-storied offices, chiefly belonging to merchants in grain and cotton. The Fort is illuminated during the night by means of the electric light. Near the Apollo Bandar is the Sailors' Home, erected at the expense of a recent Gáekwár of Baroda. Behind

the Sailors' Home is the Royal Yacht Club, a favourite resort of Bombay society. At the other end of Rampart Row is a white marble statue of the Queen, under a Gothic canopy, also the gift of the Gáekwár. The most important buildings in the densely-built space occupying the site of the Fort are the circular row of offices and warehouses known as the Elphinstone Circle, the Custom House, the Town Hall, the Mint, and the Cathedral.

The Castle and Fort St. George are the only two spots now retaining any traces of fortification. The real defences of Bombay consist at present of the two turret ships *Abyssinia* and *Magdala*, armed with 10-inch guns. A scheme for erecting ironclad forts mounted with heavy guns, in mid-channel at the entrance of the harbour, is still under consideration. The existing defences of Bombay Harbour are batteries on rocks, which stud the sea from about opposite the Memorial Church at Kolába to the Elphinstone reclamation. The one most to the south is called the Oyster Rock, which is 1000 yards from the shore and 8400 feet S.W. of the Middle Ground Battery. The fort on the Middle Ground shoal is in the middle of the anchorage, 1800 yards from shore. The third defence is on Cross Island, at the north end of the anchorage, 100 yards from the shore, and 4000 yards from Middle Ground. There is a battery also on the higher part of the island.

The private houses of the European residents lie apart from the mercantile and the native quarters of the town. As a rule, each is built in a large garden or compound; and although the style of architecture is less imposing than that of the stately mansions of Calcutta, it is well suited to the climate, and has a beauty and comfort of its own. In former times, the favourite quarter was the northern suburb of Parell, which has contained the official residence of the Governor of Bombay for the last hundred years. At present, the majority of the Europeans live on or around Malabár Hill, now terraced to the top with handsome houses, commanding a magnificent view over the city and the sea. North of Malabár Hill runs another European suburb, known as Breach Candy, where the houses are built close down upon the shore, within the refreshing sound of the waves. Of recent years, both Kumbála Hill, a continuation of Malabár Hill, and the outlying spur of Kolába are being covered with the residences of Europeans. The Governor has a pretty marine villa at Malabár Point. During the hot-weather months of the early summer, his Excellency and staff, with the Council and chief officers at head-quarters, repair to Mahábaleshwar, and spend the rainy or monsoon season at Poona.

Population.—Limiting the area of Calcutta to the municipality, and excluding the suburbs, Bombay ranks as the most populous city in India, and the second in the whole British Empire. According to the

Census of 1881, the population of the Bombay municipality, which is co-extensive with Bombay island, in an area of 22 square miles, is —males, 464,763; females, 308,433: total, 773,196, or an average of 33,662 persons per square mile. The total number of houses of all kinds is 29,853 occupied, and 1502 unoccupied, showing an average of 26·35 persons per house. The corresponding average in London is only 7·79. The proportion of males in the total population is 60·0 per cent. The following table gives the population classified according to religion or nationality, with the percentage of each class in the total. The greater bulk of the people is contained in the quarters entitled Dhobí Taláo Market, Mándevi, Umárkhári, Bholeshwar, Khetwádi, Kamátipura, Khárá, Taláo, Byculla, Tarwári, Mazagon, Girgáon, Chaupatti, and Tardeo, which cover an area of about 4 square miles only.

POPULATION OF BOMBAY CITY (1881).

RELIGION OR NATIONALITY.	NUMBER.	PERCENTAGE.
Buddhists and Jains,	17,387	2·2
Bráhmans,	31,199	4·0
Lingáyats,	1,167	0·1
Rájputs,	3,537	0·6
Hindu Súdras,	353,113	45·7
Hindu outcastes,	113,835	14·7
Muhammadans,	158,713	20·5
Pársís,	48,597	6·3
Jews,	3,321	0·5
Native Christians and Portuguese,	30,708	3·9
Eurasians,	1,168	0·1
Europeans,	10,451	1·4
Total,	773,196*	100·0

* Including 24,887 on board ships and boats in harbour.

Hardly any city in the world presents a greater variety of national types than Bombay. The Hindu and the Muhammadan, of course, predominate in numbers, but in the busy streets the characteristic dress of every Oriental people may be seen. The green and gold turban of the Musalmán, the large red or white head-dress peculiar to the Maráthá, the pointed red turban of the Guzeráth Baniyá, and the black or brown brimless hat of the Pársí, lend colour and variety to the scene. The Pársís exercise an influence much greater than is implied by their numbers. When the commerce of Western India deserted Surat in the last century, they settled in Bombay; and now, by the force of their inherited wealth, their natural genius for trade, their intelligence, and their munificent charities, they hold the first place among the native community. Their position was gracefully recognised by the Crown, when Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy received

baronetcy in 1857. The Hindu traders, or Baniyás, rank next to the Pársís. They may be divided into two classes—the Baniyás of Guzerát, and the Márwárís of Central India. A large proportion of both these classes adhere to the Jain religion, generally regarded as a distinct offshoot of Indian Buddhism; while not a few of the remainder belong to the Vaishnav sect, especially that sub-denomination known as Vallábh-achárjyas. The Muhammadans include representatives from all the great countries that have embraced Islám—Arabs, Persians, Turks, Afgháns, Malays, and Africans. The three classes of trading Muhammadans—the Memons, Boráhs, and Khojáhs—are especially numerous. Their commercial dealings are chiefly with the Persian Gulf, Zanzibar, and the east coast of Africa, while the Pársís and Jews compete with the English in the markets of Europe.

Of the total area of the island, about 8500 acres are assessed as arable land. The chief crop grown is rice; but many varieties of garden vegetables are also cultivated, particularly onions, and several members of the gourd tribe. The rearing of cocoa-nut trees, and the preparation of intoxicating drink from this tree and other species of palms, afford employment to a considerable section of the population. The Bombay mangoes are said to have been improved from grafts by the Jesuits and Portuguese priests. They have long been famous throughout India for their delicate flavour. The Bombay *pumalo*, a shaddock which looks like a large orange, is also a favourite fruit.

Bombay supports all the many industries incidental to the active life of a great city and seaport. The trades of dyeing, tanning, and working in metal are specially prosperous. The School of Art has recently done much to encourage those technical faculties which depend upon an artistic and scientific education. But the characteristic feature of Bombay manufacture is the rapid growth of the European factory system. Mills, worked by steam, and employing a large number of operatives, have been erected by local capital, especially in the northern suburbs, where the tall chimney-stacks recall a factory town in Lancashire. In 1881–82, there were 36 mills at work, with a nominal horse-power of 6208, employing 31,801 hands, and a total of 1,056,004 spindles, and 11,274 looms. Sir James Caird has remarked that the monthly wage of a worker in these mills is about equivalent to the weekly wage of a factory hand in Lancashire. The sea-borne commerce of Bombay has been included in the tables given in the previous article for Bombay Presidency. In 1880–81, 45,146 sailing ships and 1212 steamers, including foreign and coasting craft, entered the port, with a total tonnage of 2,360,985. The total value of the trade, both imports and exports, was £71,695,017. The principal article of import is cotton piece-goods, valued at £7,303,260; the chief article of export is raw cotton, valued at £9,777,185.

Administration.—Besides the High Court, which is a court of first instance for causes arising within the island of Bombay, there are also a Small Cause Court and three Presidency magistrates, having jurisdiction in the city. The total cost of these tribunals, exclusive of the Courts of the Presidency magistrates, was £86,039, of which £51,826 was covered by the stamp revenue on cases decided by them. Excluding the collection of the customs revenue of the port of Bombay, and other items of imperial revenue, such as stamps, excise, and land, amounting altogether to about £150,000 a year, the civil administration of Bombay city is entrusted to the municipal corporation created by the Acts of 1872 and 1878. One-half the members are elected by the ratepayers, and the rest are nominated by the Government and the Justices of the Peace. The members of the corporation, in their turn, elect eight out of twelve members of a Town Council, by whom the general administration of affairs is controlled. The remaining four members of the Town Council, and the chairman, are nominated by Government. The principal executive officer of the Town Council is the municipal commissioner appointed by Government. In 1881, among a total of 64 members of the corporation, the principal nationalities represented were—25 Europeans, 13 Pársís, 14 Hindus, 1 Portuguese, and 3 Muhammadans. Of the 64 members, 16 were official and 48 non-official. The corporation elects its own chairman, and in 1884–85 that position was held by a Pársí barrister. The following table shows the balance-sheet for 1880–81:—

BALANCE-SHEET OF BOMBAY MUNICIPALITY FOR 1880–81.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
House rate,*	£89,963	General superintendence,	£12,849
Government contribution to police,	7,500	Assessment and collection,	8,601
Wheel-tax,	23,192	Health department,	69,087
Liquor licences,	14,375	Market and slaughter-houses,	6,495
Land conveyance licences,	84	Engineer's department,	45,611
Town duties,	65,778	Tobacco duty establishment,	1,573
Tobacco duty licences,	16,112	Town duty establishments,	3,166
Contribution from Insurance Companies,	2,391	Interest on loans,	18,146
Markets,	23,238	Charges on loans,	1,603
Tramway rent,	2,018	Sinking Fund,	8,690
Public gardens,	817	Primary education,	1,750
Halalkhor (Scavenger) cess,	20,305	Gokaldas Tejpal Hospital,	3,600
Water-rate,	39,070	Rent of municipal office,	3,360
Contributions towards pension,	938	New works,	13,724
Miscellaneous fines,	1,417	Public account,	38,396
,, fees,	6,493	Lighting,	26,138
,, receipts,	4,413	Waterworks,	38,870
,, savings,	324	Repayment of Drainage Loan,	2,200
Profit on stores adjusted,	6,754	Other small items,	1,937
Total,	£325,182	Total,	£305,796

Surplus on year's revenue for 1880–81, £19,386.

The *halalkhor* (scavenger) cess and the water-rate represent payments for services rendered. Excluding these two items, the receipts of the municipality from taxation amounted to £265,807, or an average rate of taxation of 8s. 6d. per head. Of the total receipts, 68 per cent. was derived from taxation, 18 per cent. from payments for services rendered, 8 per cent. from municipal property, and 6 per cent. from miscellaneous sources. The total liabilities of the municipality at the end of the year 1881 were £1,191,726, and the total assets (including a cash balance of £76,209) were £1,374,416. About the year 1872, the total rateable value of the city was assessed at £1,155,000, having fallen from £1,630,000 within the previous nine years. The city police in 1880-81 consisted of a strength of 1423 officers and men, including 293 men paid from imperial sources and employed on harbour duty, or as guards to Government offices; or 65 men to every square mile of area, and 1 man to every 543 of the population. The military force at Bombay on 1st January 1882 consisted of five batteries of artillery, a European regiment, and two and a half battalions of native infantry. The head-quarters of the Bombay army are at Poona, and the head-quarters of Bombay District Command only are at Bombay. Education in 1880-81 was represented by 146 schools and colleges, with a total of 16,413 pupils, being 1 school to every ·18 square mile, and 21·7 pupils to every thousand of the population. The income of the Bombay Port Trust for the year 1880-81 was £276,683, and the expenditure £270,394, inclusive of £152,656 due as interest on capital, leaving a net surplus of £6288, which was paid away in reduction of loans.

Newspapers.—A vigorous English and vernacular press flourishes in Bombay. The *Bombay Gazette* and the *Times of India*, both of them daily journals, well-edited and well-informed, represent the Anglo-Indian community. The *Indian Spectator* is an excellent native weekly journal in the English language. The *Bombay Catholic Examiner* ably represents the Roman Catholic inhabitants. The *Bombay Chronicle*, a native paper, also deserves notice. The vernacular press includes *Indu Prakásh*, *Jam-e-Jamshed*, *Rast Goftar*, *Bombay Sámáchar*, *Arya Patrika*, and *Gujaráthí*. These native papers address their respective circles of readers, explaining passing political events, criticising official appointments, and bringing grievances to light.

Medical Aspects. — Bombay is not so excessively hot as some other parts of India. But on the other hand, it has not the bracing cold weather of the Northern Provinces. The cool months last from November to May. The south-west monsoon begins about the second week in June, and the rain continues with great regularity until the end of September. The hottest months of the year are May and October, but even then the heat is tempered by cool breezes

from the sea. The average rainfall of the year, as registered at Kolába observatory, is 70·30 inches; the average temperature, 79·2° F. The average death-rate in Bombay city during the five years ending 1880 was 38·10 per thousand. In 1881, a total of 21,553 deaths were registered, of which 529 were assigned to cholera, 37 to small-pox, 6411 to fevers, and 2004 to bowel complaints; the death-rate was 27·87 per thousand. The cost of the Public Health Department in 1880 was £69,088, or deducting receipts, £41,090. The health of the city may now be said to have returned to its normal condition before the influx of immigrants from the famine Districts in 1877. The number of births registered in Bombay city in 1881 was 16,381, giving a ratio of 21·19 per thousand. There are 5 civil hospitals in Bombay city, and a dispensary at Máhim, with an average daily number of 612 in-door, and 577 out-door patients. There is a lunatic asylum at Kolába, which contained a daily average of 297·2 inmates in 1880–81, maintained at a cost to the State of £17, 6s. per head. In 1881–82, a staff of 8 vaccinators was employed in Bombay city, who performed 18,869 operations at a total cost of £1608.

Bomorí.—Town in Orchha State, Bundelkhand, Central India Agency. Lat. 25° 26′ 20″ N., long. 79° 54′ 40″ E.; on the road from Agra to Ságar (Saugor), distant from the former 180 miles south-east, from the latter 93 miles north-west. Situated on rising ground, on the bank of an extensive artificial lake, 4 miles in length and 2 in breadth, formed by damming up the course of a small stream, and largely utilized for irrigation. On a rocky ridge overlooking the lake stands the ruined palace of the Rájá who constructed it. Population (1881) 2067.

Bomráj (*Bomráz palem*).—Estate in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Formerly, with Venkatagiri, Kálahasti, and Sayyidpur constituting the 'District of Western Palayams.' The peculiar revenue and stipendiary usages of this estate form a marked contrast to those in the neighbouring tracts under British administration.

Bonái.—The most southerly of the Tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, lying between 21° 35′ 30″ and 22° 7′ 45″ N. lat., and between 84° 31′ 5″ and 85° 25′ E. long.; area, 1349 square miles; population (1881) 24,030. Bounded on the north by part of Singbhúm District and by Gángpur State; on the south and west by Bámra, a feudatory State of the Central Provinces; and on the east by Keunjhar State, Orissa.

Physical Aspects.—The State is shut in on all sides by the lofty BONAI HILLS, which occupy so large a portion of the country that only one-twelfth of the entire area is under cultivation. The Bráhmaní flows from north to south, forming in the centre of the State a fertile and comparatively level tract, in which most of the lar

villages are situated. To reach this central valley it passes in a succession of rapids through a beautiful glen 8 miles long. These rapids present difficulties to the floating down of timber; but if they were removed, or canals cut by which they could be avoided, there would be no difficulty in sending the exceedingly valuable stores of *sál* and other timber which the State contains to False Point by this route. The timber in the Bonái and Gángpur forests along the banks of the Bráhmaní is the most valuable in the Chutiá Nágpur Tributary States. Silk cocoons and stick-lac are the most valuable of the jungle products. Iron exists and is melted in the State for local use, but is not exported. Gold is found and washed in small quantities in the beds of the Bráhmaní and the hill streams. Wild animals—tigers, leopards, wolves, elephants, bison, etc.—are very numerous, and do much damage to the crops.

History, etc.—Bonái, together with Gángpur and others of the Chutiá Nágpur States, was ceded to the British Government in 1803, and restored by a special engagement in 1806. It reverted to the British under a provisional agreement made with Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, and was finally ceded in 1826. Besides paying a yearly tribute of £20, the Rájá is bound to furnish, when required, a contingent of armed men for military service. The State yields the Rájá an income of about £600.

Population.—Of the population of 24,030 in 1881, 23,445 were Hindus by religion, and 31 Muhammadans, while 554 were aboriginal or hill tribes belonging to other religions not separately classified. A large number of aborigines by race are included among the Hindus. Number of males, 12,445; females, 11,585. Average density of population, 18 per square mile; number of villages, 256; number of occupied houses, 4372; villages per square mile, ·19; houses per square mile, 3·24; persons per village, 94; persons per house, 5·5. Of the Dravidian aborigines, the most numerous are the Bhuiyás, who are sub-divided into two clans—the Bhuiyás of the plains, and the Pahári or hill Bhuiyás. The Bhuiyás of the plains are the dominant tribe in most parts of Bonái, and were probably the earliest settlers in the country. They hold fiefs under the Rájá, and form, with the Gonds of South Bonái, the organized militia of the State. Hardly any other class of subordinate holders have fixed proprietary rights in the soil; and the Rájá had formerly no right to exercise any authority until he had received the *tílak* or token of investiture from his Bhuiyá vassals. This prerogative is still asserted by the *sáont* or head of the Bhuiyá clan in Bonái, who holds 12 villages at a quit-rent of £1, 16s. a year, and claims to be the hereditary *díwán* or finance minister of the State. The present chief, however, does not employ him or acknowledge his claim. Besides their

organization as a semi-military body, the Bhuiyás derive great power from their position as priests of the oldest temples or shrines. These temples, although now dedicated to Hindu deities, bear evidence that they were originally occupied by other images, at a period prior to the introduction of Hinduism. At some of these shrines, human sacrifices were offered every third year; and this practice continued till the country came under British rule. Next in influence to the Bhuiyás are the Gonds, also a Dravidian tribe living in the south of Bonái, bordering on Bámra State in the Central Provinces. Two members of this tribe, called respectively *dandpát* and *mahápátra*, hold fiefs on condition of military service under the Rájá. The Gonds in Bonái have now become thoroughly Hinduized, and speak no language but Uriyá. A small sprinkling of Kandhs, so long notorious for their practice of human sacrifice, is found in Bonái. They probably immigrated from Bod State in Orissa, but have long occupied a servile position in Bonái as farm labourers, and have lost all the typical characteristics of their race. Among the Hindus proper, the most noteworthy caste is the Kalíta or Kulta. They are peculiar to Sambalpur in the Central Provinces, Bonái, and Assam, and occupy in all three places a very similar position as most respectable and substantial cultivators. The Kalítas of Bonái resemble in appearance those of Assam, both having strongly-marked Aryan features with hazel or grey eyes, and there appears to be some ethnological connection between the two. The elders of the caste in Bonái, however, assert that they came originally from Mithila, the modern Tirhut, in the days of Ráma, and settled in Sambalpur, from whence they migrated into Bonái six generations ago. Colonel Dalton, in his *Ethnology of Bengal*, states that they form the best cultivators and most substantial people in the State. He found them occupying villages along with aboriginal Gonds and Kandhs, but these had nearly all fallen into the position of farm servants to the Kalítas, who had extensive fields, well-stocked farm-yards, and comfortable houses. The *pardah* system of excluding their females is unknown to them, and infant marriage is not practised.

Agriculture.—The principal crops in the State are rice, pulses, and oil-seeds. Systematic cultivation is confined to the valley of the Bráhmaní river, and, as has been already stated, only one-twelfth of the entire area is under tillage. Three regular rice crops are grown—*gorá dhán*, a highland rice, sown in June and reaped in September; autumn rice, also sown in June; and a winter crop, sown in July. *Gorá dhán* yields in good seasons 13 or 14 *maunds* of paddy for every *maund* of seed sown; but in bad years, or under careless tillage, the out-turn is not more than four or five fold the amount of seed. A fourth rice crop, called *dáhi dhán*, is grown on forest land by the nomadic hil

tribes. For this no ploughing is required; the trees are cut down and burned on the land, the ashes being mixed up with the surface soil; and the seed is put in at the commencement of the rains. The out-turn of the *dáhi* crop is from 40 to 45 times the amount of the seed, but after two years the land is exhausted. Wages in Bonái are invariably paid in kind; a male day-labourer receives 2 *sers* (4 lbs.) of rice a day, and a woman 1½ *ser* (3 lbs.). Price of best cleaned rice in 1873, 4s. 2d. per cwt.; of common rice, 2s. 1d.; and of coarse unhusked paddy, 1s. 0½d. per cwt. The principal village of the State is Bonai Garh, the residence of the Rájá.

Trade, etc.—Small boats ply on the Bráhmaní all the year round, and the bulk of the surplus produce of the country is exported to Sambalpur by this route. A portion, however, is carried to the north on pack-bullocks. Iron is smelted for local use, but is not exported. Gold is found in small quantities in the bed of the Bráhmaní and the hill streams.

The family of the Bonái chief claim a mysterious and foreign origin. They say that they came from Sakaldwíp or Ceylon, and that the founder of the family was abandoned by his mother under a *kadamba* tree. Being on the point of falling into the hands of an enemy, the infant was rescued by a peacock, which swallowed him, and kept him in its craw until the danger was past. In gratitude for this service, the peacock was adopted as the family crest. In reference to their early connection with the *kadamba* tree, they describe themselves as *kadambansí* Rájputs. Looking, however, to their position as rulers over powerful Bhuiyá vassals, who hold the bulk of the land, command the militia of the State, and have even the right of conferring the *tílak* or token of investiture on the Chief, there can be little doubt that the Rájá of Bonái was originally the tribal head of the Bhuiyá clan. If Colonel Dalton's theory be correct that the Bhuiyás formed a portion of the army with which Ráma invaded Ceylon, and were, in fact, the veritable apes of the Rámáyaná, it would seem as if the family of the Chief had taken advantage of an ancient legend to conceal their aboriginal ancestry under the fiction of Cinghalese descent.

Bonái Garh.—Residence of the Rájá of Bonái State, Chutiá Nagpur, Bengal. Lat. 21° 49′ 8″ N., long. 85° 0′ 20″ E.; situated on the Bráhmaní river, which surrounds the *garh* or fort on three sides. It is further defended by a high mud-wall and moat. Within this enclosure are about 150 houses, including the palace of the Chief, his court-house and jail. The entire village contains about 300 houses. The site, which is very picturesque, is 505 feet above sea-level.

Bonái Hills.—A series of ranges, rising to a height of 2000 and 3000 feet above the central valley of Bonái State, Chutiá Nágpur, and shutting it in on all sides. With the countless spurs which they throw

off, they occupy a large portion of the State. Most of the hills are densely wooded to the summit, and, except at the regular passes, are inaccessible to beasts of burden. Through the northern mountain barrier separating Bonái from Gángpur State, the Bráhmaní river has forced its way, passing through a glen 8 miles long. The shortest route from Gángpur to Bonái is by a rugged path through this glen, but it is only practicable during the dry weather. Principal peaks—Mánkarmáchá, 3639 feet above sea-level; Bádámgarh, 3525 feet; Kumritár, 3490 feet; Cheliátoka, 3308 feet; and Kondádhar, 3000 feet. Fifteen other peaks are named, each more than 2000 feet in height.

Bondáda.—Village in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency; paying £693 per annum as Government assessment. The estate of Bondáda, consisting of 20 villages, was resumed by Government in A.H. 1864, on account of arrears of revenue.

Bongong.—Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* BANGAON.

Bonrá.—Marsh in Bográ District, Bengal; locally known as the *bará bíl*, or Great Swamp. It is connected with the CHALAN LAKE, in Rájsháhí, one of the largest pieces of water of this kind in Bengal.

Boondee.—Native State and town in Rájputána.—*See* BUNDI.

Borágárí.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 0′ 15″ N., long. 89° 3′ 15″ E. Chief exports—rice, mustard, jute, and gunny-bags.

Borám.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 22′ N., long. 86° 10′ E. Chiefly noteworthy on account of the Jain remains in the neighbourhood, on the right bank of the Kásái (Cossye) river, 4 miles south of the town of Jáipur. There are many indications that these remains mark the site of what was at one time a very important place. Amidst heaps of *débris* and ruins stand three fine brick temples, of which the most southerly is the largest. Its tower rises from a base of 26 feet square to a height of (at present) about 60 feet; the upper portion has fallen, but the proportions followed in other temples of the same type, suggest that the original building must have been about one-third higher than the present ruins. The chamber occupies only 9 square feet; the images have been removed. The bricks of which all the temples are made are beautifully fashioned, and appear to have been finished by grinding. In this respect, and in their style of ornament and workmanship, these temples resemble the great Buddhist temple of Buddh Gayá in Behar.

Borásámbar.—Estate or *zamíndárí*, formerly belonging to the Eighteen Garhjáts, but now attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; situated between 20° 43′ 15″ and 21° 11′ 45″ N. lat., and between 82° 40′ 30″ and 83° 27′ 45″ E. long. Area, 841 square miles, nearly half of which is cultivated, the rest being covered by jungle. Number of villages, 405; occupied houses, 11,965; total population

(1881) 65,837, namely, 33,762 males and 32,075 females; average density of population, 78 per square mile. The forests contain abundance of *sál* (Shorea robusta), *sáj* (Pentaptera glabra), and other useful timber, besides lac, and cocoons of the *tasar* silkworm. Wild beasts are very numerous. In the eastern portion of the estate, a few Kalita and Bráhman families have settled, the former as agriculturists, the latter both as money-lenders and agriculturists. The leading race are the Binjwárs, an aboriginal tribe who eke out an existence as herdsmen and labourers, and by occasional cultivation. Banjáras, or carriers trading in salt and cotton with the east coast, are to be found during the monsoon, the grazing for their herds being excellent. A few Saorás, Kandhs, and Gonds are to be met with. Artisans are very scarce. The chief crop is rice; but the soil is good, and pulses, oil-seeds, cotton, and sugar-cane, when carefully cultivated, have been found to be successful. Iron-ore is found in considerable quantities. The estimated revenue of the estate is about £1480. Tribute paid to Government, £30. The *zamíndárí* was granted by the Gajapatti ruler of Purí, between 1500 and 1600 years ago, to Dasmat Barhea, the founder of the present family. The grant was originally limited to a jungle tract near Borásámbar, but the family have from time to time extended their possessions by annexations from those of neighbouring chieftains, with whom they were constantly at feud.

Borí.—Thriving town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; on the left bank of the Wana, lying between the Great Southern Road and the railway, about 18 miles from Nágpur. Lat. 20° 54′ 45″ N., long. 79° 2′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 2849, namely, Hindus, 2562; Muhammadans, 201; Jains, 37; aboriginal tribes, 49. A large portion are employed in weaving cloth dyed of a red-brick colour. In consequence of the durability of the dye, which is ascribed to some property in the waters of the Waná, the cloths of Borí command a high price. The town has a commodious *sarái*, a police station, and a Government school. Some fine groves adorn the northern quarters. Mainá Báí Nimbálkarín, with a garrison of 200 men, successfully held Borí against three raids of the Píndárís.

Boria (or *Adur*).—Seaport in the Chiplun Sub-division, Ratnagiri District, Bombay Presidency, situated midway between the mouths of the Vásishta and Shástri rivers. Lat. 17° 24′ N., long. 73° 13′ 15″ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1881–82—exports, £1700; imports, £3857. The port is protected by the bold and conspicuous headland of Adúr, 360 feet above sea-level, and is a safe anchorage during northerly gales. On the top of the hill overlooking the bay is a station of the Trigonometrical Survey.

Borsad.—Sub-division of Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 218 square miles, containing 1 town and 89 villages. Population

(1881) 143,321, of whom 76,595 are returned as males and 66,726 as females. Of Hindus there are 132,174; of Muhammadans, 8386; and of 'others,' 2761. Owing to the intermixture of Baroda and Cambay villages, the Sub-division is very broken and irregular in shape. Of the total area, 56 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated and unsettled (*mehwás*) villages. The remainder, according to the revenue survey returns, consists of 92,901 acres of cultivated land, 2597 acres of cultivable land, 2953 acres of uncultivable waste, and 4389 acres of roads, river-beds, village sites, etc. Alienated lands in Government villages occupy 40,698 acres. Of the 54,800 acres of cultivable Government land, 49,035 acres were under tillage in 1876-77.

The Mahi, the only river in the Sub-division, flows along its southern boundary, and is throughout the whole distance a tidal river. But the shallowness of its channel, its shifting sandbanks, and the force of its tidal wave make it useless for boats. Except in the south, along the banks of the Mahi, the whole Sub-division is a highly-cultivated plain sloping gently westwards, intersected by rich hedgerows, and adorned by groves of magnificent trees. Water-supply good. Net Government assessment, £26,622, or 9s. 8½d. an acre. The Sub-division contained in 1883, 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 100 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 693.

Borsad.—Chief town of the Borsad Sub-division, Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 24′ 30″ N., long. 72° 56′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 12,228, namely, 8049 Hindus, 2790 Muhammadans, 1116 Jains, 266 Christians, and 7 'others.' The town is protected by a double line of fortifications, the outer of which is in disrepair, the inner in fair preservation. These fortifications are modern, having been constructed by Ranguji, a Maráthá leader, who fixed his head-quarters here in 1741. The fort was constantly the scene of fighting till 1748, when, after a siege of five months, the Gáekwár of Baroda captured the town and made Ranguji prisoner. Besides the ordinary sub-divisional courts and offices, the town contains a subordinate judge's court, post-office, dispensary, and 3 Government schools. Borsad is also the seat of a Presbyterian mission.

Botád.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 10′ N., long. 71° 42′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 7755, namely, 5678 Hindus, 1292 Muhammadans, and 785 Jains.

Botáwad.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* BOTWAD.

Bowring-Pet (or *Maramatlu*).—Village in Kolár District, Mysore Native State; 10 miles by road south of Kolár. Lat. 12° 59′ N., long. 78° 15′ E.; population (1881) 1265. Founded in 1864, on the opening of the railway, and named after Mr. Lewin Bowring, then Chief Commissioner. Includes the former villages of Maramatlu and Hosin-

gere. Railway station for Kolár or Kolár Road, and head-quarters of the Betmangala *táluk*. Weekly fair attended by 1000 persons.

Boyáráni.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3339, all Hindus.

Bráhmagiri (or *Marenád*).—Range of hills which constitutes a natural barrier for several miles between Coorg and the Wainád *táluk* in the District of Malabár, Madras Presidency; average height, 4500 feet above the sea. Highest peak—Dávasi-betta, 5276 feet. Lat. 11° 56′ N., long. 76° 2′ E. The sides are clothed with forest. Among these hills are the sources of some of the principal tributaries of the Káveri (Cauvery), viz. the Pápanáshi (*sin-destroyer*), Valarpattanám, and the Lakshmantirtha river, which flow towards the east; and the Barapolé, which forces its precipitous course in a north-westerly direction, and through the Perámbádi Pass down to the sea.

Bráhmanábád.—Ruined city in Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. It stood on the old course of the Indus, and was strongly fortified. Outlying suburbs formerly connected it with the cities of Depur and Dalárí,—the former the royal, the latter the official quarter; Bráhmanábád itself being the commercial centre. The ruins of its fortifications measure 4 miles in circumference. Recent excavations prove that the inhabitants had attained to great skill in the arts, for the sculptures, engraved gems, carved ivory, earthenware, and coloured glass, found among the ruins, show both advanced taste and workmanship; while the arrangement and regularity of the streets, and the solid proportions of the buildings, attest great architectural excellence. Legends say that the city was founded prior to the 7th century, and was destroyed by the gods in punishment for the iniquities of 'King Dolora.' History so far confirms this tradition as to make mention of an unjust ruler, by name Dolora Amráni, in the 11th century. That the destruction of the city was as sudden as it was complete, is proved by the discovery of whole households overwhelmed together, men and women at their work, and cattle in their stalls. No marks of conflagration are discernible, nor—since household goods and valuables remain *in situ*—can the ruin of the city be referred to the invasion of an enemy, or desertion by the inhabitants. The legend, therefore, is probably so far correct, that Bráhmanábád was destroyed by natural agency—most probably by the earthquake which about the same date diverted the course of the Indus.

Bráhmanakraka.—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Houses, 705. Population (1881) 3284, namely, 3169 Hindus and 115 Muhammadans. Up to 1790 it gave its name to a *táluk* of the District.

Bráhmanbáriá.—Sub-division of Tipperah District, Bengal, lying between 23° 35′ 45″ and 24° 16′ 30″ N. lat., and between 90° 45′ 45″

nd 91° 22′ 15″ E. long. Area 769 square miles; number of towns nd villages, 1394; number of houses, 66,105, of which 64,386 are occupied and 1719 unoccupied. Population (1881) 531,417, namely, Hindus, 234,171; Muhammadans, 297,194; and Buddhists, 52; average density of population, 691 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·81; persons per village, 381; houses per square mile, 89·3; inmates per occupied house, 8·25. The Sub-division was formed in 1860, and consists of the three *thánás* (police circles) of Kasbá, Gauripurá (or Nabinagar), and Bráhmanbáriá. In 1883, it contained 2 magisterial and revenue and 5 civil courts, a regular police force of 78 officers and men, and a village watch of 873 men.

Bráhmanbáriá.—Town and head-quarters of Bráhmanbáriá Sub-division, in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Titás river. Lat. 23° 58′ N., long. 91° 9′ E.; population (1881) 17,438, of whom 11,976, or 65 per cent., are Hindus, and 5462 Muhammadans; number of males, 8639—females, 8799; municipal income in 1881–82, £476; incidence of municipal taxation, 6½d. per head of population within municipal limits. Considerable trade in rice; lock-up and dispensary.

Bráhmaní.—River of Bengal, formed by the junction of the South Koel and the Sánkh rivers. These rivers meet in Gángpur State, Chutiá Nágpur; and the united stream, assuming the name of Bráhmaní, passes through Bonái State, Chutiá Nágpur, and the Orissa States of Tálcher and Dhenkánal, and enters Cuttack District near Garh Balrámpur. It then follows a very winding course from west to east, and reaches the Bay of Bengal by two mouths, the Dhámrá estuary and the Maipárá river, in 20° 46′ 45″ N. lat., and 86° 58′ 30″ E. long. The principal branch of the Bráhmaní on its right bank in Cuttack District is the Kimiriá, which takes off opposite Rájendrápur village, and, after mixing its waters with the Gengutí, Kelo, and Birúpá, falls again into the parent stream at Indpur. As it approaches the sea, the Bráhmaní receives as a tributary the KHARSUA, and a short distance above this point its waters unite with those of the BAITARANI, forming the DHAMRA. The confluence of the South Koel and the Sánkh—*i.e.* the point of origin of the Bráhmaní—is the prettiest spot in Gángpur State, and is said by local tradition to be the scene of the amour of the sage Parásara with the fisherman's daughter, Matsya Gandhá, who became the mother of Vyása, the reputed compiler of the Vedas and the Mahábhárata.

Brahmapurí.—Sub-division or *tahsíl* of Chándá District, Central Provinces, lying between 19° and 20° 44′ 15″ N. lat., and between 79° 27′ and 80° 24′ E. long. Area, 3321 square miles, comprising 1281 square miles of Government land, and 15 *zamíndári* estates, with a total area of 2049 square miles; number of villages, 1262; number

of houses, 61,234, of which 57,965 are occupied, and 3269 unoccupied; population (1881) 257,205, namely, 129,020 males and 128,185 females; average density of population, 77·45 per square mile. Total Government land revenue, including cesses, £9789; total rental paid by cultivators, £17,363, or an average of 1s. 6d. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police stations (*thánás*) 3, with 6 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 94 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 201.

Brahmapurí.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Brahmapurí *tahsíl*. Population (1881) 4818, namely, Hindus, 4272; Muhammadans, 307; and aboriginal tribes, 239. The town is prettily situated on undulating rocky ground, surrounded with picturesque groves. In the highest part is an old fort, the walls of which have been levelled, and on their site stand the court-house, school, and police station. Manufacture of fine cotton cloth and thread, excellent brass and copper utensils, and good bullock-carts. Post-office and dispensary.

Brahmaputra (literally, 'The Son of Brahma or God').—A river of Tibet and North-Eastern India, flowing through the Provinces of Assam and Bengal, which, for its size and utility to man, ranks among the most important in the world. Its total estimated length is about 1800 miles, and its drainage area about 361,200 square miles. In its upper portion in Tibet, it is supposed to take its rise from a small lake on the south-eastern base of the sacred Kailás hill, on the opposite side of the same water-parting in which two other of the great rivers of India—the Sutlej and the Indus—also take their rise. The source of the Brahmaputra, or Sanpu, as it is called in Tibetan territory, is in about latitude 31° 30′ N., and longitude 82° E., in the vicinity of the great lakes of Mánasarowar and Long-cho or Rakhas Tál, in the Hundes country. It flows eastwards down the Sanpu valley, passing not far to the north of Lhassa, the religious capital of Tibet; and about 800 miles of its course are spent in the hollow trough north of the main Himálayan range. After receiving several tributaries from the confines of the Chinese Empire, the river twists round a lofty eastern range of the Himálayas; and after leaving Tibet, flows through an unexplored and unknown country, inhabited by rude and savage tribes, until it apparently emerges as the Dihang or Dihong in the north-east corner of Assam, and enters British territory under that name.

The connection of the Dihang with the Sanpu has not yet been determined by actual exploration, but it is now generally agreed that the two are different sections of the same stream; although D'Anville, Dalrymple, and certain French geographers were disposed to regard the Sanpu as the upper channel of the Irawadi, or great river of Burma.

This view is also taken by a recent writer, Mr. R. Gordon, C.E., in an exhaustive Report on the '*Hydrography and Hydraulics of the Irawadi*.' Our ignorance of the geography of this interesting region may be assigned to a variety of causes. It is inhabited by savage tribes, who are sufficiently under the influence of Tibet to resist all advances on the part of Europeans, and who have ere now murdered adventurous travellers. It is also an exceedingly difficult country to traverse, being obstructed by rocky precipices and narrow chasms, where none but the practised mountaineer can make his way. There is little hope of a trade route in this direction between India and China. A recent survey in the cold weather of 1878, under the direction of the late Captain Harman, R.E., followed the Sanpu considerably to the east of the portion previously explored, and lower down in the course of the river, bringing the survey down to Gyala Sindong, a fort situated within 100 miles of the highest point reached in the survey of the Dihang river from the Assam side. Captain Harman's survey has strengthened the hypothesis that the Dihang is the continuation of the Tibetan Sanpu. This, however, must remain an hypothesis until further explorations are made, or logs of timber can be floated down from Gyala Sindong into the Dihang. If it could be arranged that a number of logs, specially marked, were floated down from Gyala Sindong, and that these logs were found to emerge in the Assam valley, the question whether the Sanpu eventually enters the Brahmaputra or the Irawadi would be conclusively disposed of, even without further surveys.

The Dihing, shortly after debouching upon the Assam valley, is joined by the waters of the Dibang and the Brahmaputra of the Hindus (known as the Táluka in the upper portion of its course), which issue from the Abar and Mishmi hills, in latitude 27° 70′ N., and longitude 95° 30′ E., about 24 miles west of Sadiyá. Each of these brings down a large volume of water. The Táluka, though apparently the smallest of the three streams, has been selected by Hindu tradition as the headwaters of the sacred river. Just below the rapids which it forms on debouching from the mountains, there is a large and deep pool called the Brahmakund, the resort of pilgrims from the farthest corners of the Indian peninsula. From the point of confluence of the three rivers, the united stream takes its well-known name of Brahmaputra, literally the Son of Brahma, the Creator. Its summer discharge at Goálpárá, at the Bengal end of the Assam valley, has been computed at 146,188 cubic feet per second. This calculation, which was made over 40 years ago, appears from later inquiries to be an under-estimate. During the cold season of 1877–78, experiments were made by the late Captain Harman, of the Survey Department, for the purpose of calculating the discharges of the Brahmaputra and its tributary, the Subansiri, at the upper end of the valley near Dibrugarh. The result

of these operations was a discharge from the former river, at the mean low water level of the year, of 116,484 cubic feet per second, and for the latter of 16,945 cubic feet, giving a total for both of 133,060 cubic feet, or only 13,128 cubic feet less than the formerly computed discharge at Goálpárá, about 300 miles lower down the valley, after the river has been joined by several large tributary streams. During the rains the river rises 30 or 40 feet above its ordinary level, and its flood discharge at Goálpárá is estimated at over 500,000 cubic feet per second.

The united stream forming the Brahmaputra at once assumes in the valley of Assam the characteristics by which it is generally known. It rolls along through the plain with a vast expanse of water, broken by innumerable islands, and exhibiting the operations of alluvion and diluvion on a gigantic scale. It is so heavily freighted with silt from the Himálayas, that the least impediment in its stream causes a deposit, and may give rise to a wide-spreading almond-shaped mud-bank. Steamers anchoring near the margin for the night are sometimes found aground next morning on an accumulation of silt caused by their own obstruction to the current. On either side, the great river throws out large branches, which rejoin the main channel after a divergence of many miles. The most important of these divergent channels is the Lohít, which takes off from the main stream, under the name of the Kherkutia Suti, opposite Buri Dihing-Mukh. It receives the great volume of the Subansirí, and is then called the Lohít; but it seems probable that this is merely an alternative name for the Brahmaputra. The Lohít, thus reinforced, rejoins the main stream nearly opposite Dhansirí-Mukh, and the great island *char* of Májulí, with an area of 441 square miles, is enclosed between it and the main stream. Another large divergent channel of the Brahmaputra is the Kalang, which takes off from the south bank opposite Bishnáth in Darrang District, and traverses the whole of Nowgong District west of that point, rejoining the Brahmaputra, after a very tortuous course, a short distance above Gauhátí town.

Unlike many rivers that flow through flat low-lying plains, instead of creeping along in a sluggish channel, the Brahmaputra in the Assam valley has a comparatively swift current, and possesses no high permanent banks. At certain points in its course, it passes between or by rocky eminences, which give a temporary fixity to its channel, as at Bishnáth, Sílghát, Tezpur, Singri-parbat, Gauhátí, Háthimora, Goálpárá, and Dhubrí. Where not so controlled, it sends its shifting channels over a vast extent of country, without forming any single continuous river trough.

After a course of 450 miles south-west down the Assam valley, the Brahmaputra sweeps southward round the spurs of the Gáro Hills, which form the outwork of the watershed separating the Brahmaputra of Assam from the Sylhet river system of the Bárak. Its southerly

course continues thence for about 180 miles, under the name of the Jamuná, through the open plains of Eastern Bengal, as far as its confluence with the Padmá, or main stream of the Ganges, at Goálandá, in latitude 23° 50′ N., and longitude 89° 46′ E. From that point, the conjoint deltas of these two rivers may be said to commence. The great bulk of the waters of the Brahmaputra flow towards the south-west; but before they reach the sea, they receive the drainage, by way of the Surmá valley, of the eastern watershed between Bengal and Burmá. That drainage collects into the Meghná river (*q.v.*), itself a broad and magnificent sheet of water.

Shortly after leaving Assam, what is now the chief channel of the Brahmaputra takes the name of the Jamuná—an alteration of nomenclature representing a mighty change in the course of the river within the last hundred years. The old bed of the Brahmaputra, the only one recognised by Major Rennel in 1765, lies to the east, and still brings down a portion of the parent stream—retaining the original name—past Nasírábád, the civil station of Maimansingh District. It reunites with the Jamuna or larger body of the Brahmaputra by means of the Meghná. In fact, the entire lower portion of the Brahmaputra may be described as an elaborate network of interlacing channels, many of which run dry in the cold season, but are filled to overflowing during the annual period of inundation. Numerous islands are formed by the river during its course, one of them, the Májuli *char* in the Assam District of Sibságar, covering an area of 441 square miles, and mainly formed by the silt brought down by the Subansirí; others are mere sandbanks deposited during one rainy season, only to be swept away by the inundations of the following year. The only towns of importance situated on the banks of the main river, are Gauhátí, Goálpárá, and Dibrugarh; but there are numerous trading marts or river-side depôts for produce, the principal of which are enumerated below. The more important tributaries of the Brahmaputra proceeding down stream, and excluding the three headwaters already mentioned as uniting to form the main river near Sadiyá, are—the Subansirí, Bhorolí, Manás, Gadádhar or Sankos, Dharla, and Tístá on the right bank; and the Noá Dihing, Burí Dihing, Disang, Dikhu, Dhansiri, and Kalang, with its tributary the Kápílí, on the left bank,—for an account of each of which see the separate articles under their alphabetical headings. All these rivers are navigable by large-sized cargo boats, and many of them are open to steamers during the rainy season.

In its agricultural and commercial utility, the Brahmaputra ranks after the Ganges, and equal with the Indus, among the rivers of India. Unlike these two rivers, however, its waters are not largely utilized for the purpose of artificial irrigation, nor are they confined within embankments. The natural overflow of the periodic inundation

is sufficient to supply a soil which receives in addition a heavy rainfall; and this natural overflow is allowed to find its own lines of drainage. The plains of Eastern Bengal, watered by the Brahmaputra, yield abundant crops of rice, jute, and mustard, year after year, without undergoing any visible exhaustion; the valley of Assam is not less fertile, although scantily populated, and by a less industrious race. The Brahmaputra itself is navigable by steamers as high up as Dibrugarh, about 800 miles from the sea; and in its lower reaches its broad surface is covered with country craft of all sizes and rigs, down to dug-out canoes and timber rafts. It is remarkable, however, that comparatively little boat traffic is carried on the Brahmaputra within the Assam valley. Goálpárá is the great emporium of the boat trade, and Gauháti is ordinarily the extreme point reached by boats of large burthen. Higher up they are almost unknown, and the only craft, except steamers, to be seen on the river are mere dug-outs. All the boats which resort to Goálpárá and Gauháti come from Bengal.

The largest emporium of trade on the river is Sirájganj (*q.v.*), in the Bengal District of Pabná, where the agricultural produce of the surrounding country is collected for transmission to Calcutta. The downward traffic consists chiefly of tea, oil-seeds, caoutchouc, and raw cotton from Assam; and jute, oil-seeds, tobacco, rice, and other food-grains from Eastern Bengal. The imports up-stream are European piece-goods, salt, hardware, rice, tea-seed, liquors, etc. Two river steam companies, the India General Steam Navigation Company, and the River Steam Navigation Company, have for several years past kept up a weekly line of steamers, running from Calcutta to Dibrugarh and back. The advertised time-tables give 25 days for the up, and 20 for the down journey, but these dates are not very accurately kept. Nine days on both the up and down journeys are occupied between Calcutta and Goálandá. But the latter place, being connected with Calcutta by the Eastern Bengal Railway, is virtually the starting-point for the up, and the terminus for the down journey, both for passengers and for a considerable portion of the cargo. Besides these two steamer lines, the Assam Railways and Trading Company was established in 1881 to work a coal, timber, and petroleum concession, and to construct a railway in Lakhimpur District. It runs steamers between Dibrugarh and Calcutta, but as yet (1883) not at regular dates. A special daily steamer service for Assam, from the terminus of the Kaunia branch of the Northern Bengal Railway system at Dhubrí to Dibrugarh, has been organized under contract with the local Government by Messrs. Macneil & Co., a large Calcutta firm; and steamers commenced running about the middle of 1883. The upward voyage from Dhubrí to Dibrugarh occupies 4, and the downward 3 days. The principal depôts and trading marts, which are also stopping-places for steamers on the

Brahmaputra, are as follow, proceeding down stream:—Dibrugarh; Dihing-mukh; Disang-mukh or Dikhu-mukh, for Sibságar; Kokila-mukh, for Jorhát and North Lakhimpur; Nigriting, for Golághát; Dhansiri-mukh; Bishnáth; Kaliabar or Silghát, for Nowgong; Tezpur; Rángámatí, for Mangaldai; Gauháti; Goálpárá; and Dhubrí. These are all in the Assam valley. The Bengal stations are Káliganj, Siráj-ganj, Barisál, and Nálchiti. Steamers do not always call at all the above stations; and there are a few minor places where they stop when specially required.

Bráhuis, The.—The inhabitants of the highlands of Balúchistán, whose ruler is the Khán of Khelát. Masson states that the word Bráhui is a corruption of *Ba-roh-i*, meaning literally 'of the hills or waste,' and that the race entered Balúchistán originally from the west. Dr. Caldwell supposes them to be a Dravidian race, and one of their tribes claims to have come from the shores of the Mediterranean. Their language, which is known as Bráhuiki, is altogether void of affinity with the Persian, Pushtu, or Balúchí. It contains a Dravidian element, derived perhaps from some of their first tribes, or offshoots of other races, being engrafted on a stock akin to that which peopled Southern India. The discovery of this element beyond the Indus river indicates that some of the Dravidians, like the Aryans, the Scythians, and the Turco-Mongolians, entered India by the north-west route. The Bráhuis themselves believe and state that they are the aborigines of the country which they now occupy, and that their forefathers came from Halb and Aleppo. Dr. Cook believes that the Bráhuis were Tartar mountaineers, who settled at a very early period in the southern parts of Asia, where they led an ambulatory life in *khels*, or societies, headed and governed by their own chiefs and laws till at length they attained a footing in Balúchistán, ultimately supplanting the former inhabitants, whom he supposes to have been of Hindu origin. Pottinger states that their language contains many ancient Hindu words, and he believes that it belongs either to the Scythic, or Turanian, or Tamilian stock. The Sakæ who formed part of Alexander's army, and whose country is stated by Wilson to have been that lying between the Paro-pamisus mountains and the Sea of Aral, are said to still exist as a tribe of the Bráhuis of Jhaláwán. It is not improbable that they accom-panied Alexander as far as the south of Sind, and returning with Craterus up or through the Múla pass, settled in their present position.

The Bráhuis are most numerous in the provinces of Jháláwár and Sáráwár, and the number of their tribal divisions is great. Pottinger gives the names of no fewer than seventy-four, each division being ruled by its own *Wahdera* or chief. They are as a race essentially nomadic, and reside in *tománs*, or collections of tents made of goat's-hair, black or striped. The furniture of the ordinary tent usually consists of a few

metal cooking-pots, a stone hand-mill, some rough carpets or rugs, a distaff for spinning wool, and a pipe or *hukka*. A chief's tent may be a little better furnished, and he is generally richer than his neighbours in flocks and herds. Dissensions are common, but the Bráhui tribes are on the whole more compact and united than those of Afghánistán. They are Sunní Muhammadans of the Hánbeli sect, but not fanatical; nor have they any religious men, whether Sayyad, *pír*, *mulla*, or *fakír*. They consider themselves peculiarly favoured Muhammadans, as the Prophet, mounted on a dove, paid them a visit one night, and left a number of saints behind him for their guidance. Forty of these lie buried under a mountain, called Chihal Tau, or the 'Mountain of Forty Bodies,' to the north of Balúchistán, a place held sacred and visited not only by Muhammadans of other tribes, but by the Hindus also.

In appearance, Bráhuis are easily distinguishable from Patháns, and also from their Balúch fellow-subjects. They are smaller and sparer than the inhabitants of Afghánistán, and their features are often blunt and irregular. Their faces perhaps show more intelligence than the Pathán physiognomy. Their hair and beards are frequently brown. They have great physical strength, and are hardier than the Balúchis. They tolerate the scorching sun of Kach-Gandáva, equally with the cold and frost of their own mountains. They are good workers, many of them in the plains to the south of Khelát being agricultural labourers. The activity and endurance of the Bráhuis is far superior to that of the inhabitants of Southern Afghánistán, to whom they are not inferior in courage; and though as avaricious as the Patháns, they are less revengeful, less quarrelsome, and more trustworthy. They do not possess the wild chivalry which distinguishes the Balúchi, but they have none of the cold-blooded treachery of the Afghán race. They are keen hunters, and almost without exception good shots. The Jhálawárs claim to excel in the use of firearms, while the Sárawárs are superior with the sword. The Bráhui chiefs have considerable power; and their women are but slightly, if at all, secluded.

The ordinary dress of the Bráhuis is the same for summer or winter. It is made up of a tunic or shirt, generally ornamented with a little red embroidery; trousers often gathered in about the ankle, but without any resemblance to the extravagantly wide pantaloons among Patháns; and a brown greatcoat or cloak, usually of felt. A *kammar-band* is worn round the waist. The head-dress is a round or pointed skull-cap, without a *pagri* or turban, but with a small tassel, tuft, or button affixed to the centre of the crown, those of the higher classes being elaborately ornamented with gold thread. A few wear turbans. Square-toed *chapplís*, or sandals of deer or goat skin, are worn by all classes. Their arms are a matchlock, sword, and shield; pistols are carried by the

well-to-do, and the wealthy have rifles. The Afghán knife is unknown, and for the spear they profess contempt.

Bráhuis are not averse to military service, and there are a few in the so-called Balúch regiments (27th, 29th, and 30th Bombay Native Infantry); but as enlistment in the British Bombay service is practically for life, the best men hold aloof.

The representative of the Bráhuis in politics is the Khán of Khelát, himself a Bráhui, and a lineal descendant of Kumbar, the head of one of their chief tribes, the Kumbarání. This tribe is divided into three distinct ranks, namely, the Ahmadzáis, the Khání, and the Kumbarání. The Kumbaránis only partially intermarry with the other two, *i.e.* they receive wives from them, but not husbands.

Brindában.—Town and municipality in Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the right bank of the Jumna, in a peninsula formed by a northward bend of the river, 6 miles north of Muttra. Lat. 27° 23′ 20″ N., long. 77° 44′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 21,467, namely, 20,629 Hindus, 794 Muhammadans, 32 Jains, and 12 Christians; area of town site, 486 acres. Municipal revenue in 1881-82, £2085, of which £1828 was derived from octroi, or an average of 1s. 8⅜d. per head of municipal population (21,467). Brindában ranks amongst the holiest cities of the Hindus, and contains a large number of temples, shrines, and sacred sites. Among the most noticeable may be mentioned the temple of Gobind Deva, erected in 1590 by Rájá Mán Singh of Ambar, governor of Kábul and Behar under Akbar, which was originally capped with five towers, all now destroyed. Government has recently repaired the temple at a cost of about £3400, and in 1883 a further sum was devoted to the same purpose. Among the other principal shrines are the temple of Madan Mohan, a form of Krishna, on the river bank, at the upper end of the town; that of Gopináth, built by Ráesili-Ji about 1580; and the great temple of the Seths, dedicated to Rang-Ji, and constructed between 1845 and 1851 at a cost of 45 *lákhs* of rupees (say, £450,000). Handsome *ghâts* or flights of stone bathing-steps line the bank of the Jumna; and above, the temples and houses rise picturesquely with decorated façades. The Khusal-bagh is a picturesque garden surrounded with a masonry wall, and is situated close to the town. Ahaliya Bái, the Maráthá queen of Indore, built a large well of red sandstone, with 57 steps leading down to the water's edge. Two other tanks, known as the Brahma-Kúnd and the Govind-Kúnd, possess great sanctity for Hindus. Many private houses are built of hewn sandstone. Anglo-vernacular school, and dispensary. Brindában is one of the great places of pilgrimage of India, and is annually resorted to by thousands of Hindus from the most distant provinces. It is now easily reached

by the branch line from the East India Railway to Muttra city, only 6 miles from Brindában.

Broach (*Bharuch*).—British District in the Northern Division of the Bombay Presidency, lying between 21° 26′ and 22° 5′ N. lat., and between 72° 34′ and 73° 12′ E. long.; area, 1453 square miles; population according to the Census of 1881, 326,930 souls. The District is bounded on the north by the river Máhi, which separates it from the territory of Cambay; on the east and south-east by the Native States of Baroda and Rájpípla; on the south by the river Kim, which separates it from Surat District. To the west lies the Gulf of Cambay, along the shore of which the District stretches for a distance of 54 miles. Number of villages on the Government rent-roll, 405. Land revenue (1880–81) £224,278; total revenue (gross) £253,581.

Physical Features.—The District forms an alluvial plain 54 miles in length, sloping gently westwards to the shores of the Gulf of Cambay (Khambhát), and varying in breadth from 20 to 40 miles. With the exception of a few hillocks of sand-drift along the line of coast, and some mounds in the neighbourhood of Broach city, the level of the plain is unbroken by any rising ground. The Máhi and Kim—the former a river of 300 miles in length, with a drainage area estimated at from 15,000 to 17,000 square miles; and the latter with a course of 70 miles and a drainage area of about 700 square miles — form respectively the northern and southern boundaries of the District. Between these limits are two other rivers which discharge their waters through the Broach plain into the Gulf of Cambay—the Dhádhar about 20 miles south of the Máhi, and the Narbadá (Nerbudda) between the Dhádhar and the Kim. The Dhádhar passes through the Broach plain for 24 miles, or about one-third of the entire length of its course; and the Narbadá, with a total length of between 700 and 800 miles, and a drainage area estimated at about 36,400 square miles, flows for the last 70 miles of its course through the District, gradually widening into an estuary, whose shores when they fall away into the Gulf of Cambay are more than 13 miles apart. The water of these rivers is not made use of for irrigation; and though each has a tidal estuary extending for several miles inland, none of them, except the Narbadá, and for a short distance the Dhádhar, is serviceable for purposes of navigation. Owing to the height of the banks of its rivers, the District is, for drainage purposes, to a great extent dependent on creeks or backwaters running inland, either directly from the coast-line or from the banks of rivers at points in their course below the limit of tidal influence. Of the salt-water creeks or backwaters, the three most important are the Mota, breaking off from the Dhádhar river about 6 miles west of the town of Amod; the Bhúkhi, running inland from the right bank of the Narbadá, about 15 miles west of the town of Broach; and the Wand,

an inlet from the shore of the Gulf of Cambay, about 8 miles north of the mouth of the Kim river.

The surface of the plain consists, over almost its entire area, of black cotton soil, highly fertile and well cultivated. This black soil covers deposits of brown clay, containing nodular limestone above and gravel and sand underneath. Within 30 miles of the coast hardly any rocks are to be seen. Farther inland, the gravels and clays of the nummulitic series begin to appear, and in the south of the District trap crops out. Conglomerate and limestone are also found in this tract, but otherwise the plain of Broach contains no minerals. Except for a tract of waste land 161 acres in extent, lately set apart for the growth of *babúl* trees (Acacia), the District is without forests; and only in the few villages where the lighter varieties of soil are found is the plain well covered with trees. The Palmyra palm is the only liquor-yielding tree of the District, and it is largely found south of the Narbadá. Of the fruit-trees are the mango, guava, and tamarind. On an island in the Narbadá (Nerbudda), about 12 miles above Broach, is a famous *banian* or *bar* (Ficus Indicus) tree, known as the *Kabír bar*, because, as the story goes, it sprang from a twig which the sage Kabir once used for cleaning his teeth. About the year 1780, this tree is said to have had 350 large and over 3000 small stems, the principal of which enclosed a space nearly 2000 feet in circumference; in the march of an army this tree had been known to have sheltered 7000 men. Nearly 50 years later (April 1825) Bishop Heber wrote of this tree, 'Though a considerable part of the tree has within the last few years been washed away, enough remains to make it one of the most noble groves in the world.' Since then it has suffered much from age and floods, and is now little more than a ruin.

The domestic animals are cows, buffaloes, oxen, camels, horses, asses, sheep, and goats. The cattle of the District are of two breeds—the small indigenous bullock, and the large ox of Northern Gujarát. The smaller breed of bullocks, which are generally driven in riding carts, are worth from £6 to £12 a pair; the larger sort, used for ploughing, are worth from £15 to £20. Well-to-do cultivators pay much attention to the appearance and condition of their cattle. Cultivation is too general to allow much scope for wild animals. The hog, wolf, and antelope almost exhaust the list. Of birds, the chief are the floriken, sand grouse, partridge, quail, duck, snipe, and crane. The District is well supplied with fish—fresh-water, salt-water, and migratory.

Population.—The earliest year for which an estimate of the population is available is 1820, when the number of inhabitants was returned at 229,527, or 173 to the square mile. In 1851, the number was 290,984, or 200 to the square mile. The Census of 1872 gave a total population of 350,322 persons, or 257·97 to the square mile.

The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 326,930, or 225 to the square mile; of these the males numbered 168,482, the females 158,448; occupying 13,588 houses in 4 towns and 58,647 houses in 401 villages. The number of unoccupied houses was returned at 19,457. Classified according to religion, there were 115,542 male and 107,296 female Hindus: total, 222,838; 34,280 male and 32,968 female Muhammadans: total, 67,248; Christians, 115; Jains, 3768; Jews, 18; Pársís, 3042; Buddhists, 2; Brahmos, 3; and aborigines, 29,896. Under the term Hindu are included Bráhmans, who numbered 13,161; Rájputs, 16,710; Chamárs, 3417; Darjis and Shimpis, 1964; Dhobís, 1094; Dublás, 18,037; Barbers, 3577; Kanbís, 27,142; Kolís, 52,500; Kumbhars, 4451; Lohanás, 918; Lohárs, or blacksmiths, 1690; Malís, or gardeners, 401; Mahár and Dhers, 15,553; Sonárs, or goldsmiths, 2181; Sutárs, or carpenters, 2320; Telís, or oilmen, 3380. The aborigines are almost entirely Bhíls. The agricultural population was returned at 190,443, or 58·25 per cent. of the total, of which 128,776, or 39·4 per cent., were workers.

The practice of separating into small distinct classes has in Broach been carried so far that, in a Hindu population of 222,838 persons, there are representatives of 142 distinct castes, which are again split up into numerous sub-divisions. Among Musalmáns there are two classes distinct in origin, though now considerably mixed by intermarriage—Muhammadan immigrants, and converts to Islám. These comprise four classes, Sayyid, Mughal, Pathán, and Shaikh, with a total population of 67,248 persons. Of the Musalmáns whose origin is traced to Hindu converts, the most important are the Borahs (Boharás), who include two main classes, distinct from each other in occupation and in sect, one engaged in trade, and who are mostly Ismáili Shiás, the other employed almost entirely in tilling the fields, belonging to the Sunní sect, and forming nearly half of the entire Musalmán population of the District. For other classes of converted Hindus—the Molesaláms (formerly Rájputs), the Máleks, the Momnás, and the Shekhs—no separate figures are available. With the exception of the Borahs, who are a well-to-do body, the Broach Musalmáns are for the most part in a depressed condition. Besides the above classes, there is among the orthodox Musalmáns of Broach a peculiar community called Nagorís, who have long been settled in the District. They are said to derive their name from their former home, Nagor, a town in Málwá; they are now carters and labourers.

The chief agricultural classes of Broach District are Kanbís, Rájputs, Kachchhís, Málís, and Kolís; the trading classes are Vaishnava Baniyás, as well as Saráwaks or Jains, Borahs of the Shiá sect, and Pársís. The cultivating Borahs are a hard-working and intelligent but somewhat turbulent body of men. In language and

habits they resemble the Kanbís and other Hindus, but are distinguishable by their beard as well as by a peculiar cast of countenance. While professing the faith of Islám, they do not intermarry with other Musalmáns. The Kanbís, as peaceable as they are industrious, form the most respectable part of the rural population; they are well acquainted with the qualities and powers of all varieties of the soil. The Rájputs afford an instance of a complete change from the fierceness and turbulence of a martial class, to the quietness, obedience, and industry of tillers of the soil. The Kolís, who stand lower in the social scale than the Kanbís, formerly bore a bad reputation as plunderers, but they are now a reformed race. In many villages they are as steady and hard-working cultivators as any in the District. A few Pársís are engaged in agriculture, and are said to be active and skilful husbandmen. Most of the members of this class deal in merchandize, and together with the Saráwaks form the two most wealthy sections of the trading community. The Census Report of 1881 returned the male population according to occupation under the following six main headings: (1) Professional class, including civil and military, all Government officials, and the learned professions, 8450; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 2693; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3973; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 71,420; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 63,732; (6) indefinite and non-productive, including general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 168,482.

Of the whole population, about 20 per cent. live in towns containing more than 5000 inhabitants. Originally the towns were walled, and each was provided with its own fort. Within the circuit of the walls lived the richest part of the people, dwelling in well-built houses; without were the poorer classes, lodged chiefly in hovels. Though the fortifications have now been allowed to fall into decay, a marked distinction still remains between the town proper and its suburbs. The villages have in general a thriving appearance, arising from the common use of tiles for the houses instead of thatch; and the trees with which they are surrounded contribute to give a pleasing effect. The respectable inhabitants have their houses together in courts or closes, with an entrance common to all the families who belong to the same close, which is shut at night for the protection of the cattle. Formerly many of the villages were surrounded by walls of mud or burnt brick as a shelter against the attacks of freebooters, but now only one village remains walled, and its fortifications are said to be broken down in many places. Exclusive of 14 hamlets, there were, in 1881, 405 inhabited towns and villages, giving an average of 0·29 village to each square mile, and 807·23 inhabitants to each village. Of these 405 towns and

villages, 14 contained less than one hundred inhabitants; 32 from one to two hundred; 161 from two to five hundred; 129 from five hundred to a thousand; 50 from one to two thousand; 11 from two to three thousand; 4 from three to five thousand; 2 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; and one from twenty to fifty thousand inhabitants.

In 1881, the total number of houses was 91,692, or an average of 63·10 per square mile. Of these, about one-fourth were built of stone or fire-baked brick, and roofed with tile. The remainder had outer walls of mud or sun-dried brick, and thatched roofs. A well-to-do trader's house generally contains furniture worth altogether about £47. Of this amount, cots, cupboards, couches, boxes, carpets, quilts, and mattresses represent about £27, and cooking pots about £20. A well-to-do cultivator owns one or two strong wooden boxes, wooden bedsteads and flock coverlets, worth altogether about £14, besides cooking pots worth £10. An artisan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, two or three beds, cooking and drinking pots, worth altogether about £2, 8s. A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars and one or two mattresses, worth about a shilling or two.

Trade Guilds.—The trade guilds of Broach include the leading capitalists of the city, the bankers and money-changers, cotton dealers, agents, and those engaged in the business of insurance; other unions represent the smaller trades, and are conducted on the *panchάyat* system common throughout India. Details of the constitution and objects of these associations are given in the article on the District of AHMADABAD, where the system is more fully developed than in Broach. One of the main sources of revenue of the chief guild of Broach city is a tax of from 6d. to 1s. per bale levied by the managers on cotton. Except in the case of cotton bills, there is also a charge of ¾d. on every bill of exchange negotiated. The receipts from these taxes are applied to Hindu objects of charity and religion. The chief institution maintained is the hospital (*pánjrápol*) for old and sick animals, supported at a yearly cost of about £530. In addition to fees and fines levied upon members for breaches of trade rules, some of the guilds adopt special means for collecting funds. Money-changers, grain-dealers, grocers, and tobacco merchants, make the observance of their trade holidays—the 2nd, the 11th, and the last day of each fortnight—a source of revenue to the general body. On the occasion of these holidays, only one shop is allowed to remain open in each market. The right to open this shop is put up to auction, and the amount of the bid is kept for caste purposes. Similarly the bankers, cotton dealers, insurers, and bricklayers have, for trade purposes, imposed a tax on the members of their craft or calling. In the case of other classes, the necessary sums are collected by subscription among the members of the caste.

Village Officials.—At the time of the introduction of British rule (1803), there was in many villages an association of members of the proprietary body, by which the amount of the State demand was distributed according to a fixed proportion among the members. The peculiarities of this joint and sharehold tenure (*bhágdári*) have to some extent disappeared before the system of collecting the revenue direct from the different shareholders; but in most places the village organization still remains tolerably complete. The staff of village servants includes as a rule the head-man, *pátel*; the clerk, *taláti*; the family priest, *ghámot*; the potter, *kumbhár*; the barber, *hajjám*; the carpenter, *sutár*; the blacksmith, *lohár*; the tailor, *darzi*; the shoemaker, *mochi*; the washerman, *dhobi*; the tanner, *khálpa*; the sweeper, *dher*; the scavenger, *bhangi*; the watchman, *wartania* or *rakha*. Besides this establishment, in some villages are to be found the water-drawer, *kosia*; the water-supplier, *parabio*; goldsmith, *soni* or *sonár*; singer, *bárot* or *bhát*; teacher, *ákhún*; physician, *baidya*; astronomer, *joshi*; strolling players, *bhaváyá*; Hindu devotees, *gosáin* or *bairági*; and Musalmán devotees, *fakír*. The head-men retain to the present day much of their former influence. They are in many cases rich, and possess a strong hold over the villagers by reason of their business as money-lenders.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of lands belonging to other territory situated within its limits, Broach District contains a total area of 1453 square miles or 933,764 acres, of which 193,886 acres, or 20·76 per cent., are alienated, and 243,556 acres, or 26·08 per cent., are uncultivable waste, including the area of village sites, roads, rivers, reservoirs, and the tracts of salt land liable to be flooded at specially high tides. The total area of State cultivable assessed land is therefore 496,322 acres, of which 463,475, or 93·38 per cent., were occupied in 1880–81, and 32,847, or 6·62 per cent., were unoccupied or lying waste. About 2633 acres of salt land have been taken up by private individuals for reclamation. These lands have been leased by Government on special conditions, rent free for the first ten years, and for the following twenty years at rents varying from 6d. to 1s. per acre, to be subject to the usual assessment rates after thirty years. The land is for agricultural purposes divided into two main classes, light soils and black soils; the former compose about one-fourth, and the latter three-fourths of the entire area. There is also a rich alluvial deposit known as *bháthá*, in which products of all kinds, especially tobacco and castor-oil plants, are raised. The holders of land belong to two classes—proprietors of large estates or *thákurs*, and peasant proprietors or *ráyats*. Of the total assessed area, 47,017 acres, or 6·81 per cent., are in the possession of men belonging to the landlord class, who are the heirs of old Rájput families. A peasant proprietor is either a member of a cultivating community, or an independent holder with an individual interest in the land he tills. Of the

whole number of villages in the District, the lands of 244, or 59·51 per cent., were in 1862 held by corporations of shareholders, and the remaining 166 villages, or 48·49 per cent., by individual cultivators. Of the whole area of the Government land, 457,806 acres, or 92·24 per cent., are held under the ordinary survey tenure for a term of thirty years, at rates subject to revision. The land alienated by the State is held at a fixed quit-rent. The assessment and quit-rent paid and payable to the State amounts to £226,629; the local cess, to £17,510: total, £244,139.

There are two harvests in the year, (1) the early or *kharíf*, and (2) the late or *rabí*. The early crops are sown in June, and, except cotton, which is seldom ready for picking before February, are harvested in October and November. The late crops are sown in October, and reaped in February. A field of black soil requires only one ploughing, and is seldom manured. Light soils, on the other hand, are ploughed three or four times, and are generally manured. The entire set of implements used on a farm may be valued at from £1, 10s. to £2. The agricultural stock in the possession of the cultivators of State or *khálsá* villages in 1880–81 numbered 26,228 ploughs, 18,489 carts, 59,326 bullocks, 47,676 buffaloes, 13,430 cows, 770 horses, 1182 mares, 611 foals, 20,420 sheep and goats, and 1171 asses. Of 463,475 acres of Government land occupied in the year 1880–81, 65,026 acres, or 13·90 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the 399,063 acres under actual cultivation in 1880–81, grain crops occupied 185,713 acres, or 46·5 per cent.; pulses, 36,177 acres, or 9·1 per cent.; tobacco, 1499 acres, or 0·3 per cent.; sugar-cane, 139 acres; indigo, 232 acres; oil-seeds, 10,460 acres, or 2·7 per cent.; cotton, 162,979 acres, or 40·9 per cent.; miscellaneous crops, 1864 acres, or 0·4 per cent. Since the year 1812, attempts have been made from time to time to improve the cultivation and preparation of cotton. So far, the result has been to show that foreign varieties will not thrive in the District. In the matter of ginning considerable improvements have been made. By the introduction of the Platt Macarthy Rolley Gin in 1864, the old native hand-gin (*charkha*) has been entirely supplanted.

The years 1630, 1631, and 1755 are said to have been seasons of scarcity in which, owing to the failure of crops, remissions of revenue were granted. In 1760, 1761, 1773, 1786, and 1787, portions of the District verged so closely upon famine that the revenue had to be very largely remitted. The great famine of 1790 was caused by the entire failure of the ordinary rainfall. Since the beginning of the present century, six years of scarcity, amounting almost to famine, are recorded. The year 1819 was marked by excessive rainfall, and 1838, 1840, and 1868 by total or partial failure of rain. In 1812, the District suffered from the ravages of locusts, and in 1835 from frost. Years of partial

drought have also been numerous. In 1878, the autumnal crops failed in two of the western *táluks*, on account of excessive moisture due to heavy rainfall; all the fields sown after a certain period were attacked by swarms of grubs. The cotton crop in all seasons is liable to be injured by the boll-worm.

Communications and Trade.—There are 13 lines of road, extending over a total distance of 147½ miles, and 28 miles of railway running through the District. Till within the last fifteen years, the highway of the trade of the District, as well as of the trade of a large section of Gujarát and Western Málwá, passed through the ports of Broach and Tankári down the estuaries of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Dhádhar. Since the opening of the railway, the trade by sea has greatly fallen off. It is still, however, large enough to support a fleet of small coasting vessels, and occasionally attracts into the Narbadá foreign ships of large size. Strictly speaking, there are no harbours along the coast line of the District. The estuaries of the rivers, navigable for 92 miles, offer shelter to coasting vessels during the stormy months of the monsoon. In 1820, there were five seaports (*bandar*), viz. Degam, Tankári, Ghandhar, Dehej, and Broach. Of these, only two, BROACH and TANKARI, are still seats of trade. During the ten years ending 1847, the total value of sea-borne imports and exports averaged £1,150,091. From 1856 to 1862, the corresponding returns fell to £970,339. From 1865 to 1870, they amounted on an average to £634,369; while in 1874 they had fallen as low as £391,297, or about one-third of the corresponding returns of twenty-five years before. In 1880–81, the imports were £155,104; exports, £449,898: total, £605,002. In the Broach District section of 28 miles of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, the chief engineering work is the bridge over the Narbadá. This structure consists of 67 spans, or a total length of 4122 feet, with a maximum height of 120 feet from screw to rail level, the screw being 60 feet below the river bed, or 72 feet below low water in mid channel. The most important branch of Broach trade is the export of cotton. To the total of 65,348 tons, valued at £1,637,965, exported during the year 1874, cotton contributed £1,376,508, or 84·03 per cent. In connection with this cotton trade, 31 steam presses were employed in the District in 1874.

At present the capital by which the trade of Broach is carried on is for the most part supplied from Bombay. In 1820, the Broach dealers are said to have been representatives of mercantile houses in Bombay, Surat, and Ujjain; and now, in the majority of cases, they are agents of Bombay firms. Except in the town of Broach, where there are a few Pársís and Borahs, the capitalists are almost all Baniyás by caste. Carriers and other unskilled town labourers earn from 6d. to 9½d. a day; agricultural labourers, from 3d. to 4½d.; bricklayers and carpenters

from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d. Female labourers are paid about one-third less than males. Lads of from 12 to 15 get about two-thirds less; boys of from 10 to 13, who accompany carpenters and bricklayers, are paid about one-fifth of the ordinary rate. The current prices per *maund* of 40 *sers* or 80 lbs. of the chief articles of food during 1881 were, for wheat, 6s.; for rice, 9s. 2¼d.; for Indian millet or *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), 4s. 3¾d.; for Italian millet or *bájrá* (Holcus spicatus), 4s. 8¼d.; for gram, 5s. 3d.; for peas or *dál*, 4s. 9¾d.; for barley, 6s. 3d.

History.—Though the English established a Factory at Broach for trade purposes as early as 1616, it was not until after their capture of the castle of Surat in 1759 that they had any political relations with the native ruler. But soon after their accession to political power at Surat, certain questions of revenue gave rise to a dispute with the ruler of Broach, and in 1771 a force was sent from Surat against his capital. This expedition, which was not begun till May, resulted in failure; but during the ensuing rainy season, the Nawáb of Broach visited Bombay, and agreed to pay to the English a sum of £40,000. This, however, he failed to do, and in November 1772 a second expedition was sent against Broach. The city was taken with little difficulty, though with the loss of General Wedderburn, the commander of the force. The territory acquired by the capture of the city comprised 162 villages. In 1783, the country under Broach, which by treaty and conquest had by that time come to include the lands of Ankleswar, Hánsot, Dehejbára, and Amod, was by the treaty of Sálbái (Salbye) handed over to the Maráthás—the original conquest to Mahádájí Sindhiá, and the new acquisitions to the Peshwá. For nineteen years these territories remained under Maráthá rule, till in 1803, in consequence of the treaty of Bassein, Sindhia's possessions in Gujarát were invaded by a British force, and the city of Broach was again taken. No further territorial changes took place till 1818, when, under the terms of the treaty of Poona, three sub-divisions were added to the District. Since that date the history of Broach has been marked by only two events—in 1823, an outbreak of Kolís took place, and in 1857 a riot between the Pársís and Musalmáns. The first revenue settlement of the District took place in 1870–71; it will become open to resettlement in 1895–96.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *táluks* or Sub-divisions, viz. AMOD, BROACH, ANKLESWAR, JAMBUSAR, and WAGRA. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and three Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civil servant. For judicial purposes, the District was formerly included within the jurisdiction of the Judge of Surat. It now contains 4 civil judges and 15 stipendiary magistrates, the average distance in miles of villages from the nearest court being 12. In the year 1880–81,

the total strength of the regular police force was 417 officers and men. Of these, under the District superintendent, 2 were subordinate officers, 77 inferior subordinate officers, 22 mounted constables, and 315 foot-constables, of whom 180 were provided with firearms, and the remainder with swords or batons. The cost of maintaining this force was £7683. These figures show 1 man to every 3·49 square miles, as compared with the area, and 1 man to every 784 persons, as compared with the population; the cost of maintenance being equal to £5, 9s. per square mile, or 5¾d. per head of population. With the exception of accommodation provided for a few under-trial prisoners at the head-quarters of each Sub-division, there is no prison in the District. All prisoners are now conveyed by rail to the District jail in Surat. The District contains 9 post-offices and 6 telegraph offices, one at each of the 5 stations on the railway, and a separate Government office at Broach.

The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded in 1880–81 a total of £18,552. There are one city and two town municipalities at Broach, Jambúsar, and Ankleswar. The total municipal receipts in 1880-81 amounted to £9922; and the expenditure to £10,564, the incidence of taxation being 3s. 1½d. per head of population within municipal limits, 4s. 1¾d. per head in Broach, and 1s. 0¼d. in Jambúsar. The whole amount of revenue raised in 1880–81—imperial, municipal, and local—was £261,574, or 16s. per head of the entire population. Of this, £224,278 was derived from the land revenue; £9649 from excise, and £15,285 from the sale of stamps.

In the year 1880–81, there were 3 superior schools, with an attendance of 377 pupils, and 214 Government primary schools, or 1 school for every 2 inhabited villages, with an average attendance of 11,347 pupils, or 3·5 per cent. of the total population. Of the total number, 7 were girls' schools. The whole cost of education to the State amounted to £6890. In Broach city there is 1 library and 2 local newspapers.

There are in all 15 fairs or places of pilgrimage, of which 11 are resorted to by Hindus, and 4 by Musalmáns. Shukaltirth is annually visited by about 25,000 pilgrims. At Bhádbhut and Karod, the number varies from 50,000 to 100,000. The chief towns are—(1) BROACH, with a population (1881) of 37,281; (2) JAMBUSAR, population 11,479; (3) ANKLESWAR, population 9535; (4) AMOD, population 5822.

Medical Aspects.—The District is as healthy as any part of Gujarát, and the climate is much more pleasant than in those parts of the Province situated farther from the sea. For a series of years ending with 1849, the average rainfall was about 33 inches; between 1852 and 1860, the average returns are 41·60 inches; from 1860 to 1870, 34 inches; 36·27 inches in 1872–73, and 35·78 in 1873–74. According to the Meteorological Report for 1881, the general average rainfall at Broach

city is returned at 38·87 inches. Frosts are said to occur at intervals of from 10 to 12 years, sometimes, as in 1835, sufficiently severe to destroy the crops. The latter days of March and the month of April are the hottest season in the year. At the end of April, west and south-west winds begin to blow, and continue till October, when the rainy season closes. In the following months, slight easterly winds prevail, lasting till the end of December. There are 6 dispensaries, all established within the last few years, and one hospital at Broach city. During the year 1880–81, 25,751 persons in all were treated in the dispensaries, of whom 25,612 were out-door and 139 in-door patients; while the civil hospital afforded relief to 330 in-patients and 7560 out-patients; and in the same year 6025 persons were vaccinated. The total number of deaths registered throughout the District in the fourteen years ending 1879 was 96,570, giving an average annual mortality of 6898, or a death-rate of 19·16 per thousand. In 1880, the total number of deaths was returned at 10,326, or a death-rate of 31·5 per thousand. During the same year the number of births was returned at 5861, of whom 3104 were males, and 2757 females, giving a birth-rate of 16·73 per thousand of population. [For further information regarding Broach, see the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. ii. pp. 337–569 (Government Press, Bombay, 1871). Also Mr. Stack's *Memorandum on Current Land Revenue Settlements*, pp. 434–437; the *Bombay Census Report* of 1881; and the annual *Administration Reports of the Bombay Government* from 1880 to 1883.]

Broach. — Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay Presidency. Area (1881) 302 square miles; 1 town and 104 villages; occupied houses, 23,011. Population (1881) 110,561, or 366 per square mile. Hindus numbered 64,382; Muhammadans, 30,531; and 'others,' 15,648. Almost the whole of this Sub-division is a flat rich plain of black soil, stretching towards the north bank of the Narbadá, forty-three miles of whose course lie within its limits. The remainder consists of a few islands in the bed of the river, and a narrow strip of land on the southern bank, nearly opposite the city of Broach. The supply of tank and well water is defective. Of the total area of the Sub-division, 14 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The remainder, according to the revenue survey returns, comprises 125,321 acres of occupied land; 10,406 acres of cultivable waste; 29,593 acres of uncultivable waste, and 20,182 acres occupied by village sites, roads, tanks, and rivers. From the total Government area of 135,727 acres, 19,974 acres have to be subtracted on account of alienated lands in State villages. Of the balance of 115,753 acres, the actual area of cultivable State lands, 106,531 acres were under cultivation, fallow, or under grass in 1873–74. The Government assessment, which was fixed in 1870–71, and remains

in force till 1899-1900, amounts to £58,894 net, or an average of 10s. $5\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre. The Sub-division contained 3 civil and 6 criminal courts in 1883, with two police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 207 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 709.

Broach.—Chief town of the District of the same name in Gujarát (Guzerat), Bombay Presidency; situated on the right bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, about 30 miles from its mouth. Lat. 21° 43′ N., long. 73° 2′ E.; area, including suburbs, $3\frac{1}{8}$ square miles; number of houses, 10,443; population (1881) 37,281, namely, males 19,404, and females 17,877, classified as follows:—Hindus, 22,201; Musalmáns, 10,847; Jains, 873; Pársis, 2088; Christians, 111; and 'others,' 1161; municipal revenue (1881) £7985, or 1s. $3\frac{1}{2}$d. per head of population; municipal expenditure in same year, £9256.

Seen from the southern bank of the Narbadá, or approached by the railway bridge from the south, the massive stone wall, rising from the water's edge, and lining the river bank for about a mile, and the buildings standing out from the high ground behind, give the town of Broach a marked and picturesque appearance. The fortifications, though by local tradition ascribed to Sidh Ráj Jaisingjí of Anhilwára (12th century), were, according to the author of the *Mirat-i-Sikandri*, built in 1526 A.D., under the orders of Sultán Bahádur, King of Ahmadábád. In the middle of the 17th century (1660), the walls are said to have been destroyed by the Emperor Aurangzeb, and about twenty-five years later, to have been rebuilt by the same monarch as a protection against the attacks of the Maráthás. Of late years, the fortifications on the land side have been allowed to fall into disrepair, and in some places almost every trace of them has disappeared. On the southern side, where protection is required against the floods of the river, the city wall is kept in good order. Built of large blocks of stone, the river face of the wall, raised from 30 to 40 feet high, stretches along the bank for about a mile. It is provided with five gates, and the top forms a broad pathway. The circuit of the wall includes an area of $\frac{3}{8}$ths of a square mile, which in the centre rises to a height of from 60 to 80 feet above the surrounding country. This mound, from the broken bricks and other *débris* dug out of it, shows signs of being in part at least of artificial construction. At the same time, the presence of one or two small hillocks to the north of the city favours the opinion that it may have been the rising ground on the river bank which led the early settlers to choose Broach as the site for a city. Within the walls, the streets are narrow, and in some places steep. The houses are generally two storeys high, with walls of brick and tiled roofs. In the eastern part of the town are some large family mansions said to have been built in 1790. In the suburbs the houses have a meaner appearance, many of them being not more than one storey high, with walls of wattle and daub.

The city of Broach was, according to local legend, originally founded by the sage Bhragu, and called Bhragupur or Bhragu's city. In the 1st century of the Christian era, the sage's settlement had given its name—Barugaza—to a large Province, and had itself become one of the chief ports in Western India. Two hundred years later, it was the capital of a Rájput king; and in the early part of the 7th century, it is said by the Chinese pilgrim, Hwen Thsang, to have contained 10 Buddhist convents, with 300 monks and 10 temples. Half a century later, Broach was a town of sufficient importance to attract some of the earliest Musalmán expeditions against Western India. Under the Rájput dynasties of Anhilwára (746–1300 A.D.), Broach was a flourishing seaport. During the troubles that followed the overthrow of the Anhilwára kings, the city would seem to have changed hands on more than one occasion. But with the exception of two years (1534–36), during which it was held by the officers of the Emperor Humáyún, Broach remained (1391 to 1572) under the Musalmán dynasty of Ahmadábád. About this time, the city was twice (1536 and 1546) plundered by the Portuguese, who, except for its streets, 'so narrow most of them that two horsemen could not pass at the same time,' admired the city 'with its magnificent and lofty houses, with their costly lattices, the famous ivory and blackwood workshops, and its townsmen well skilled in mechanics—chiefly weavers, who make the finest cloth in the world' (*Decadas de Couto*, v. 325). In 1573, Broach was surrendered to the Emperor Akbar by Muzaffar Sháh III., the last of the line of Ahmadábád kings. Ten years later, Muzaffar Sháh recovered the city, but held it only for a few months, when it again fell into the hands of the Emperor of Delhi. In 1616 a British factory, and in 1617 a Dutch factory, were established at Broach. In 1660, some of the fortifications of the city were razed to the ground by the order of the Emperor Aurangzeb. In this defenceless state it was twice, in 1675 and 1686, plundered by the Maráthás. After the second attack, Aurangzeb ordered that the walls should be rebuilt, and the city named Sukhábád. In 1736, the Musalmán commandant of the port was raised by Nizám-ul-Mulk to the rank of Nawáb. In April 1771, an attempt on the part of the English to take Broach failed; but in November 1772 a second force was sent against the town, and this time it was stormed and captured. In 1783, it was handed over to Sindhiá, but was retaken in 1803 by the British, and since that time it has remained in our possession.

In 1777, the town is said to have contained 50,000 inhabitants; in 1812, 37,716. The census of 1872 returned 36,932; that of 1881, 37,281. The only classes calling for special notice are, among Hindus, the Bhrágav Bráhmans, who claim to be descendants of the sage Bhragu. The Pársís, from the number and antiquity of their Towers of Silence, are supposed

to have settled at Broach as far back as the 11th century. Formerly shipbuilders and skilled weavers, they have suffered from the decay of both trades. Many of them have migrated to Bombay, to improve their circumstances; and the frugality of those that are left enables them to keep out of pauperism. The Brahma Kshattris—a writer caste—are influential and prosperous. The greater number and most wealthy of the trading classes are Sráwaks or Jains. The Musalmáns are for the most part in a condition of poverty.

Broach is one of the oldest seaports in Western India. Eighteen hundred years ago, it was a chief seat of the trade then carried on between India and the ports of Western Asia. In more recent times, though the trade of Gujarát has never again centred in the harbours of this District, Broach so far maintained its position, that in the 17th century it sent ships eastward to Java and Sumatra, and westward to Aden and the ports of the Red Sea. Later on, the foreign trade of Gujarát collected more and more in Surat, until from Surat it was transferred to Bombay. The cotton once exported from Broach to China and Bengal, was sent through Surat and Bombay; and as far back as 1815, the Broach ports ceased to have any foreign commerce. They now possess only a coasting trade south to Bombay and all the intermediate ports, and north as far as Mándvi, in Cutch. The total value of the sea-borne trade of Broach in 1880–81 was £601,467, of which £154,026 represented the value of imports, and £447,441 that of exports. The chief articles of trade are, towards the south, exports—flowers of the *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia), wheat, and cotton; imports—molasses, rice, betel-nut, timber, coal, iron, and cocoa-nut. To the west and north the exports are—grain, cotton seed, *mahuá* flowers, tiles, and firewood; the imports, chiefly stone for building.

In ancient times, cloth is mentioned as one of the chief articles of export from Broach; and in the 17th century, when the English and Dutch first settled in Gujarát, it was the fame of its cloth manufactures that led them to establish factories in Broach. The kinds of cloth for which Broach was specially known at that time would seem to have been *bástás*, broad and narrow dimities, and other fine calicoes. The gain to the European trader of having a factory at Broach was, that he might 'oversee the weavers, buying up the cotton yarn to employ them all the rains, when he sets on foot his investments, that they may be ready against the season for the ships.' About the middle of the 17th century, the District is said to have produced more manufactures, and those of the finest fabrics, than the same extent of country in any other part of the world, not excepting Bengal. In spite of the increasing competition of the produce of steam factories in Bombay, Surat, and Ahmadábád, handloom weaving in Broach has within the last few years shown signs of reviving.

With the exception of a stone mosque constructed out of an older Hindu temple, the city contains no buildings of interest. To the west are the groves of the well-wooded suburbs of Vajalpur, and northwards a group of two hills relieves the line of the level plain, while on the north-east rows of tamarind trees mark where a hundred years ago was the Nawáb's garden, with 'summer pavilions, fountains, and canals.' To the east are the spots that, to a Hindu, give the town a special interest, the site of King Báli's sacrifice, and the temple of Bhragu Rishi. About 200 yards from the bastion at the north-west corner of the fort is the tomb of Brigadier David Wedderburn, who was killed at the siege of Broach on 14th November 1772. About two miles west of the fort, are a few large and massive tombs, raised to members of the Dutch Factory. Beyond the Dutch tombs are the five Pársí Towers of Silence: four being old and disused, and the fifth lately built by a rich Pársí merchant of Bombay. The city has been surveyed with a view to protect the rights of both the Government and the public. The drinking water used by the inhabitants of the intramural parts of the town comes almost entirely from the Narbadá. There are but few wells in the city; and, unlike Surat and Ahmadábád, the custom of having cisterns in dwelling-houses for the storage of rain water is not general.

Búbak.—Town and railway station in Sehwán *táluk*, Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; 9 miles west of the town of Sehwán. Lat. 26° 26′ 30″ N., long. 67° 45′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 2836. Municipal revenue in 1880-81, £305; incidence of taxation about 2s. 1½d. per head; expenditure, £246. Post-office, school, and police station. Carpets of good quality are manufactured. Owing to floods caused by the overflow of the Manchhar Lake, the *zamíndárs* have been of late years considerably impoverished. To resist these encroachments, the town has been surrounded by a ditch. The public health has been affected in consequence, and in 1869 Búbak suffered severely from cholera. The railway station is distant 3 miles from the town.

Búd-Búd.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 24′ 30″ N., long. 87° 34′ 45″ E.

Budáun (*Budáon*).—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 39′ and 28° 27′ N. lat., and between 78° 19′ 15″ and 79° 41′ E. long.; area, 2001·8 square miles; population in 1881, 906,451 souls. Budáun forms the south-western District of the Rohilkhand Division. It is bounded on the north-east by Bareli (Bareilly) and the State of Rámpur, on the north-west by Moradábád, on the south-west by the Ganges, and on the east by Sháhjahánpur. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of BUDAUN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Budáun does not materially differ

in its main features from the other portions of the great Gangetic plain. It stretches, with little diversity of surface or scenery, from the valley of the Rámgangá on the east, to the sacred river which forms its boundary on the west, in an almost unbroken succession of ancient alluvial uplands. But although its level face is seldom interrupted by any elevation greater than a shifting sandhill, yet a closer view discloses minor varieties of soil and productions which at first sight escape the eye in surveying its somewhat monotonous flats. The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Sot, on whose banks the town of Budáun occupies a picturesque eminence, crowned by mouldering battlements of early architecture. The north-eastern of these two regions forms the dividing range between the Sot and the Rámgangá, and the soil as it approaches the former stream falls away into huge gaping ravines, through which the surface drainage cuts itself an ever-widening course into the channel below. A large part of this tract still abounds in heavy jungles of *dhák* and wild date, the remnant of that famous forest which once surrounded Aonlá in Bareilly District, and into which the armies of the Mughal Emperors dared not penetrate. The estates situated in the heart of this wild region bear the name of the Bankati villages. Similar patches of dense brushwood may be found scattered here and there in other parts of the District. South-west of the Sot lies the central upland tract, a highly cultivated plain, comprising the richest agricultural land in Budáun. The jungle is, however, rapidly decreasing in area, owing to the demand for firewood created by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The District is, however, well wooded with timber and fruit trees, and there are few villages without a plantation of some sort. Mango groves occupy 23,045 acres, and are often planted in avenues along roadsides for the sake of the shade they afford. Beyond it, towards the Ganges, rises the high and sandy ridge known as the *bhúr*, which runs parallel to the river from end to end of the District. It consists for the most part of very barren and almost uncultivated land, interspersed at wide distances with villages of Ahars, whose cattle graze upon the short grass which covers its sandy soil. The lower alluvial basin of the Ganges lies to the south of the *bhúr*; but the fear of inundation prevents cultivators from settling on its uncertain lowlands, and vast savannahs of rank grass and tall *táttar* reeds accordingly usurp the place of tillage. The principal rivers besides the Ganges, the Sot, and the Rámgangá, in order from east to west, are the Aril, the Andheri, a tributary of the Aril, the Maháwa, with its tributaries the Chhoiya and the Nakta Nadí. The Ganges is navigable throughout the year for boats of large burthen; the Rámgangá only in the rainy season, except for small country craft. Several shallow lakes (*jhíls*) lie scattered throughout the District, the chief of which, the Daleganj *jhíl*,

has a length of about 3 miles. The reeds and grasses which grow on the surface of these lakes and marshes, are cut by the villages for cattle fodder or for thatching purposes. A low belt of porous and somewhat marshy clay, intervening between the *bhúr* and the valley of the Maháwa, probably marks the ancient bed of the Ganges. *Kankar*, or nodular limestone, used for road metalling, is quarried at several places in the District. The only other mineral product is a kind of calcareous marl, which is burned into lime. Among the wild animals, antelope, hog, and *nilgái* are common, and wolves are found on the sandy wastes of the *bhúr* tract. Black partridge, quail, water-fowl, and hares abound, while floriken and sand-grouse are occasionally met with. Many varieties of fish are caught in the rivers and streams.

History.—Budáun owes its name, as the accepted tradition records, to one Budh, an Ahar prince, who founded the city about the year 905 A.D. His descendants held the surrounding tract for another century, and Ahars still form the principal element of the population throughout all the wilder portions of the District. In 1028, Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, nephew of Sultán Mahmúd of Ghazní, invaded the country now known as Rohilkhand, and established himself for a time in Budáun. He suffered many losses, however, during his struggle with its Hindu possessors, and eventually abandoned his conquest, leaving many of his followers behind. In 1196, Kutab-ud-dín Aibak, Ghiyás-ud-dín's viceroy in India, captured the fort of Budáun, killed the Rájá, and sacked the city. Shams-ud-dín Altamsh obtained the government of the new dependency, which he exchanged in 1210 for the throne of Delhi. Under his successors, Budáun ranked as a place of great importance; and in 1236 gave a second Emperor to Delhi, in the person of Rukn-ud-dín, whose handsome mosque, the Jamá Masjíd Shamshi, still adorns the city in which he had been governor. During the 13th and 14th centuries, the annals of Budáun are confined to the usual local insurrections and bloody repressions, which form the staple of Indian history before the advent of the Mughals. In 1415, Mahábat Khán, the governor, rose in rebellion, and the Emperor Khizr Khán marched against him in vain. After a reign of eleven years' duration, the rebellious vassal was compelled in 1426 to surrender to Mubárak Sháh, Khizr Khán's successor. Alam Sháh visited the city in 1449; and during his stay, his Wazír joined with Bahlol Lodi in depriving him of all his dominions except Budáun, which he was permitted to retain until his death in 1479. His son-in-law, Husáin Sháh of Jaunpur, then took possession of the District; but Bahlol Lodi soon compelled the intruder to restore it to the Delhi Empire. After the establishment of the Mughal power, Humáyún appointed governors of Sambhal and Budáun; but they disagreed, and the Sambhal governor, having taken Budáun by siege, put his rival to death. Under the administrative

organization of Akbar, Budáun was formed in 1556 into a *Sarkár* of *Subah* Delhi, which was granted as a fief to Kásim Alí Khán. In 1571, a great fire consumed the larger part of the city; and in Sháh Jahán's time the seat of Government was removed to Bareilly (Bareli). The rise of the Rohillá power, which centred in the latter town, accelerated the decline of Budáun. In 1719, during the reign of Muhammad Sháh, Muhammad Khán Bangash annexed the south-eastern portion of the District, including the city, to Farukhábád, while the Rohillás under Ali Muhammad seized upon the remainder. In 1754, however, the Rohillás recovered the *parganás* which had been united to Farukhábád. Their subsequent history, and their subjugation by the Wazír of Oudh, belong more properly to the account of BAREILLY (BARELI) DISTRICT. Dúndi Khán of Budáun made his peace with Shujá-ud-daulá before the defeat of Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the national leader, at Míránpur Katra in 1774; but after that event the Wazír attacked him, notwithstanding his submission, and took possession of Budáun.

In 1801, the District passed with the rest of Rohilkhand under British rule. Originally, it formed part of Moradábád District; but in 1805, four of its *parganás* were transferred to Bareilly, namely, Ujháni, Usahát, Budáun, and Kot Salbáhan. In 1823, a District of Sahaswán was erected into a separate charge, comprising portions of Moradábád, Bareilly, and Aligarh. Fifteen years later, the head-quarters were transferred to Budáun, a larger and more important post than Sahaswán. In 1845, the Aligarh *parganás* lying beyond the Ganges were handed over to the Doáb District of Etah, to which they more naturally belong. Since that period no territorial changes have taken place. The Mutiny of 1857 alone breaks in upon the peaceful course of civil administration. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Budáun on 15th May. A fortnight later, the treasure guard mutinied, plundered the treasury, and broke open the jail. The civil officers then found themselves compelled to leave for Fatehgarh. On the 2nd of June, the Bareilly mutineers marched in, and on the 17th, Abdul Ráhim Khán assumed the government of the District. As usual, disturbances broke out between the Hindus and the Musalmán leaders; and in July and August, the Muhammadans fought two regular battles with the Thákurs, whom they completely defeated. At the end of August several Europea[n] fugitives crossed the Ganges into the District, and were protected a[t] Dátaganj by the landholders. After the fall of Walidád Khán's fo[rt] at Málágarh, that rebel chieftain passed into Budáun in October, bu[t] found it advisable to proceed to Fatehgarh. On the 5th of Novembe[r] the Musalmáns defeated the Ahars at Gunaur, and took possession [of] that *tahsíl*, hitherto held by our police. Towards the close of Janua[ry] 1858, the rebels, under Niáz Muhammad, marched against Fatehgar[h]

but were met by Sir Hope Grant's force at Shamsábád and utterly dispersed. Niáz Muhammad then returned to Budáun. On the 27th of April, General Penny's force defeated the rebels at Kakrala, but the General himself was killed in the action; while Major Gordon fell upon them in the north, near Bisauli. Their leaders fled to Bareilly, and managers were at once appointed to the various *parganás* on behalf of the British Government. By the 12th of May, Budáun came once more into our hands, though Tántia Topi with his fugitive army afterwards crossed this portion of Rohilkhand into Oudh, on the 27th. Brigadier Coke's column entered the District on the 3rd of June, and Colonel Wilkinson's column from Bareilly on the 8th. Order was then permanently restored, and has not since been menaced.

Population.—The Census of 1881 showed a slight decrease as compared with the previous enumeration in 1872. In 1872, the population was returned at 934,670; and in 1881 (the area being the same) at 906,451, showing a decrease of 28,219, or 3·11 per cent. in the 9 years. The Census of 1881 was taken over an area of 2001 square miles; it disclosed a total population of 906,451 persons, distributed among 1834 villages or townships, and inhabiting 102,902 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 452·8; villages per square mile, 0·91; houses per square mile, 51·4; persons per village, 489; persons per house, 8·8. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 487,351; females, 419,100; proportion of males, 53·78 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 767,255, or 84·6 per cent.; while the Musalmáns amounted to only 138,687, or 15·3 per cent. The proportion of Muhammadans is smaller in Budáun than in any other District of Rohilkhand, except Sháhjahánpur. The Census also returned 160 persons Jains, 40 Sikhs, and 309 Christians or 'others.' Among the various Hindu castes, Bráhmans numbered 60,863; Rájputs, 63,562; Baniyás, or trading class, 32,480; Ahars, graziers on the *bhúr* tract, the predominant caste in the District, 133,085; Chamárs, landless agriculturists, who have emerged under British rule from the position of serfs, 122,085; Gadarias, or shepherd caste, 27,811; Kachhís, cultivators, 107,230; Kahárs, labourers and palanquin-bearers, 37,146; Káyasths, 9778; and Kurmís, 6274. The Musalmán population comprised 66,024 Sunnís, 370 Shiás, 7 Wahábís, and 107 of unspecified denominations. The total agricultural population of all ages and both sexes amounted to 672,773. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census report classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 5272; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1426; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6079; (4) agricultural and pastoral

class, including gardeners, 248,543; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 44,500; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 23,735 labourers and 157,796 unspecified, including male children), 181,531. Three predatory races infest the District—the Bhantus, a Hindu tribe who wander about in large gangs of from 20 to 50 persons, and live entirely by begging and stealing; the Habúrahs, also Hindus, who form smaller bands, and occasionally undertake field work; and the Sansias, a vagrant Musalmán clan who cross over from the Doáb, and bear a bad reputation for kidnapping children. Seven towns contain a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, BUDAUN, 33,680; SAHASWAN, 14,605; UJHANI, 7185; ISLAMNAGAR, 5890; ALAPUR, 5630; BILSI, 6301; and KAKRALA, 5810. BISAULI, which had less than 5000 inhabitants at the date of the Census, is also a considerable town, with many fine Pathán buildings, including a handsome mosque. Of the 1834 towns and villages comprising the District, 543 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 741 have from two to five hundred; 381 from five hundred to a thousand; 133 from one to two thousand; 19 from two to three thousand; 10 from three to five thousand; 5 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 from twenty to fifty thousand inhabitants.

Agriculture.—The District contains 2001 square miles, of which 1370 are cultivated, 381 are cultivable, and 250 are uncultivable. The fertile upland of Budáun consists of a light loam, merging gradually into the poor and almost barren sand of the *bhúr* region; but the District also comprises considerable fringes of lowland, known as *khádir* and *tarái*. The *khádir* is composed of porous clay, capable of producing two crops a year for many seasons in succession; it occupies the deserted channel of the Ganges, where water may always be found at a few feet below the surface. It is specially adapted for rice, which is always grown for the autumn harvest; while barley and wheat follow immediately as spring crops. The *tarái* comprises the modern alluvial fringe along the present beds of the Ganges and the Rámgangá. The valley of the former river contains several large patches of *úsar* land, whitened by the destructive saline efflorescence known as *reh*, which appears upon the surface after inundations or heavy rain. The mode of tillage does not differ from that of other North-Western Districts. The *kharíf* or autumn crops include cotton, indigo, sugar-cane, rice, *joár*, *bájrá*, and *moth*; the *rabí* or spring crops consist chiefly of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other cereals or pulses. There is no canal irrigation in the District, the fields being watered either from wells, lakes, ponds, swamps, or rivers; about 24 per cent. of the entire cultivated area is irrigated in this manner. Manure is not employed for the ordinary agricultural staples, but is copiously applied to the lands immediately around the villages, which produce poppy, tobacco, vege-

tables, and other choice crops. The ordinary modes of personal and communal tenure exist in Budáun, divisible into the three chief heads of *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, and *bháyachárá*. The Rájputs are the great landowning caste, and they hold in all 622 estates. The Shaikh Musalmáns rank next with 346 estates, and the Ahars third with 194. Where many small proprietors exist, the owner often cultivates the whole, or nearly the whole, of his land; but, as a rule, the greater portion is leased to cultivating tenants. Out of the total cultivated area of 891,189 acres, 139,106 acres are held by the proprietors as *sír* or homestead; while 561,212 acres are tilled by tenants with rights of occupancy, and 190,871 acres by tenants-at-will. The average area cultivated in 1881 by each head of the agricultural population (672,773, or 74·22 per cent. of the District population) was 1·72 acres; the amount of Government land revenue and cesses levied from the landholders was £122,944; and the amount of rental, including cesses paid by the cultivators, was £236,540, or an average of 5s. 2½d. for each cultivated acre. Besides the rent, however, the income of the landlord receives considerable additions from the customary dues or cesses which tenants present upon certain stated occasions. Each agricultural tenant must supply a measure of bran in the spring, and a bundle of fodder in the autumn; he must plough his landlord's fields twice a year, at the festivals of *Holi* and *Dasahára*, and must lend his cart to carry home the harvest. In like manner, the oilman must offer a jar of oil, the tanner a pair of shoes, and the potter 50 earthen vessels a year; while the tailor is similarly bound to make four suits of clothes for his landlord, who supplies the cloth, but pays nothing for the labour. These dues give the proprietor great social consequence as the chief personage in his own village; and the tenants in return expect from him many favours, which would not be shown if they were remiss in discharging their customary obligations. The situation of Budáun, lying apart from the busy channels of trade, has produced a less rapid rise in prices and wages than has occurred in many neighbouring Districts. The construction of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, however, has greatly added to the facilities for distributing the local produce, and rents and prices have both felt the influence of this important change. Coolies and unskilled labourers receive from 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; and bricklayers or carpenters, 6d. to 1s. per diem. The prices current of food-stuffs ruled as follows in 1880: Wheat, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; rice (best), 6 *sers* per rupee, or 18s. 8d. per cwt.; rice (common), 14¾ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájrá*, 18¾ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 1d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Floods on the Ganges and Maháwa occur to a greater or less extent every year; and when they rise unusually high or

late, much of the autumn crop is carried away. The loss, however, is not considerable, as the banks of these rivers are lined with jungle, and only occasionally cultivated by speculative proprietors. But Budáun suffers greatly from drought, the common scourge of all Upper India. The first recorded famine occurred in the year 1761, when many of the people died, and large numbers emigrated. The next severe scarcity took place in 1803-04, when the autumn crops utterly failed, and the spring harvest was far below the average. In the great famine of 1837-38, Budáun suffered the extreme of misery, thousands died of starvation, grain rose to unattainable prices, and the police found themselves powerless for the preservation of order. In 1860, the autumn crops again failed, and no rain fell after September; the spring sowings accordingly perished, and many persons died of starvation. The price of grain began to rise in August 1860, and continued high till March 1861, when it gradually fell, and in October ordinary rates once more prevailed. In 1868, the rains partially failed, and distress arose in 1869, as the autumn harvest had only produced half its average yield; but timely showers in January and February 1869 prevented the scarcity from ever reaching famine pitch, although relief operations on an extended scale became necessary.

Commerce, etc.—The trade of Budáun, which is chiefly confined to agricultural produce, centres in the three towns of BUDAUN, SAHASWAN, and BILSI. The last-named mart forms the main distributing agency for European goods and imported wares in this part of Rohilkhand. Its imports include chintz, salt, groceries, iron, metal-work, and *pán*; while its exports consist chiefly of sugar, grain, and leather. The only manufacturing industries, apart from the simplest forms of weaving, the making of rough agricultural tools, and of brass or earthen domestic vessels, is indigo manufacture and sugar-refining. The principal seat of the former is at Bilsí, where a European firm has a large factory, with branches in other parts of the District. A great fair takes place at Kakora, on the last day of Kártik, attended by about 100,000 persons. Other large fairs are held at Cháopur (20,000 visitors), Sukhela (10,000), Lakhanpur (7000), and Bára Chirra (5000). The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway cuts the District in two places. The main line from Bareilly (Bareli) to Chandausi traverses the north-eastern angle for a length of 16 miles, with 3 stations—namely, Karengí (better known as Mahmúdpur), Dabtúra, and Asafpur. The Moradábád and Aligarh branch runs through the north-western corner for a distance of 13 miles to Rájghát on the Ganges, where it crosses the river by an iron bridge. The two stations on this branch of the line are Balralá and Dhanári. Good roads connect all the principal centres of population; the most important being that from Bareilly to Háthras, through Budáun and Ujháni, crossing the Ganges at Kachhlaghát by a bridge

of boats. Four other similar bridges exist at Anúpshahr, Rájghát, Kádirchauk, and Surájpurghát—the last two on the Etah and Fatehgarh roads respectively. The Ganges is navigable throughout the year for boats of large burthen.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Collector-Magistrate, 1 Joint and 1 Assistant Magistrate, 1 Deputy Magistrate, and 5 *tahsíldárs*. The Judge of Sháhjahánpur holds civil jurisdiction over the entire District; the criminal jurisdiction being under the charge of the additional Judge of Bijnaur and Budáun; the Judge of Bareilly has charge of the remainder. Four *munsif's* courts are also established at East and West Budáun, Sahaswán, and Bisauli. The whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876, amounted to £149,908, of which £102,914, or a little more than two-thirds, was contributed by the land-tax. In 1880–81, the imperial revenue amounted to £120,544, of which £103,625 was derived from the land; the cost of officials and police of all kinds, in the same year, was £20,644. The regular police force in 1880 numbered 393 officers and men, besides a municipal or town force of 222 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6804, of which £5490 was contributed from provincial and £1314 from local funds. In addition, there were 2031 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), maintained at an estimated cost of £7335. The District contains but one jail, which had a daily average of 379 prisoners in 1881, including 14 females. There were 7 Imperial and 11 District post-offices in 1877, besides 5 telegraph stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The number of Government aided or inspected schools in 1881–82 was 160, with a roll of 4239 pupils on 31st March 1882. This is exclusive of unaided or uninspected schools. The Census Report returned 4828 boys and 225 girls as under instruction in 1881, besides 12,475 males and 211 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The Government District school is of the lower middle grade, and has a boarding-house attached, for boys from a distance. There are aided schools under the superintendence of the American Methodist Episcopal Mission. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *tahsíls* and 11 *parganás*, containing, at the date of settlement in 1870, an aggregate number of 2140 estates, held by 30,104 registered proprietors or coparceners. Municipalities have been established at BUDAUN, BILSI, UJHANI, and SAHASWAN. In 1880–81, their joint revenue amounted to £3252, or 1s. 4½d. per head of population (51,690) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Budáun resembles that of other Districts in Rohilkhand, being somewhat cooler and moister than the adjacent portions of the Doáb, owing to the greater proximity of the hills and the damp submontane tract. The average rainfall

during 31 years has amounted to 32·49 inches per annum. The maximum during this period was 44·2 inches in 1871, and the minimum 14·0 inches in 1868, when the danger of famine was imminent. The mean annual temperature reached 76° F. in 1871, with a maximum monthly average of 91° in June, and a minimum of 58° F. in January. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1880 was 24,951, or 27·52 per thousand of the population. Charitable dispensaries have been established at Budáun, Sahaswán, Gunraur, Islámnagar, Bisauli, Dátaganj, Usehát, and Bílsi. These eight institutions afforded relief in 1881 to 60,172 persons, of whom 1624 were in-door patients. [For further information regarding Budáun District, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. v. pp. 1–236 (Allahábád, 1879). Also the *Settlement Report of the District*, by C. P. Carmichael, Esq., 1873; the *North-Western Provinces Census Report* of 1881; and the *Annual Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Budáun.—Head-quarters *tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the northern bank of the Ganges, and comprising the *parganás* of Budáun and Ujháni. Area, 466 square miles, of which 309 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 222,312. Land revenue, £21,337: total revenue, £24,210; rental paid by cultivators, £55,340. The Sub-division contains 2 civil and 6 criminal courts, with two police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 326.

Budáun.—City, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 2′ 30″ N., long. 79° 9′ 45″ E. Lies about a mile east of the left bank of the river Sot, and consists of an old and a new town. The former stands on a commanding eminence, and contains the fort, the ruins of whose enormous ramparts of early architecture gird it round on three sides. Handsome mosque, originally a Hindu temple, built of massive stone, and crowned by a dome of singular beauty. Besides the usual District Courts, Budáun contains a dispensary, school, municipal hall, jail, church, and chapel of the American Methodist Mission, which maintains several girls' schools in different parts of the town. Although intersected at all points by good metalled roads, the town stands apart from the modern course of traffic, owing to the growth of railways, which have somewhat diverted its trade. Population (1881) 33,680, namely, 19,492 Muhammadans, 14,134 Hindus, and 54 Christians; area of town site, 415 acres. Municipal income (1881–82) £2211, or an average of 1s. 3¾d. per head of the population. Budáun was founded, according to tradition, by Budh, an Ahar prince, about 905 A.D., and held by his descendants till the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, nephew of Mahmúd of Ghazní, in 1028. Sacked by Kutab-ud-dín in 1186. The city formed the seat of government for a *sarkár* under the Patháns and

Mughals, but it was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1571. During the reign of Sháh Jahán (1627–1658), the seat of the Governorship was removed from Budáun to Bareilly. On the death of the Emperor Farukh Siyyar in 1719, the Nawáb of Farukhábád seized the city, from whose son it was wrested about thirty years later, by the Rohillás under Háfiz Rahmat. In 1774, Budáun, with the rest of Rohilkhand, was annexed by the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, whose deputies governed the city till its cession to the British in 1801. On the outbreak of the rebellion in May 1857, the treasury guard at Budáun mutinied, and being joined by the townspeople, broke open the jail, and burned the civil station. A Native Government was then established, and remained in power till General Penny's victory at Kakrála in the following April, when the rebel governor fled the city, and order was again re-established.

Buddh Gayá (or *Bodh Gayá*).—Village in Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 41′ 45″ N., long. 85° 2′ 4″ E. Situated about 6 miles south of Gayá town, on the west bank of the Phálgú or Nilájan river, just above its junction with the Mohána. The ruins at this place are among the most interesting and famous in India, for it is acknowledged to have been the dwelling-place of Sakya Muni or Buddha, the princely founder of the Buddhist religion, who flourished in the 6th century before the Christian era. According to General Cunningham, Buddha had ascended a mountain to the south-east of Gayá, called Prágbodhi, for the purpose of dwelling in silent solitude on its summit; but being disturbed by the tremblings caused by the flight of the god of the mountain, he descended on the south-west side, and went 2½ miles to the *pípal* tree (Ficus religiosa) at Buddh Gayá. Midway in the descent, there was a cave (mentioned by the Chinese pilgrim Fa Hian) where Buddha rested with his legs crossed. Under the *pípal* tree the sage sat in mental abstraction for five years, until he obtained Buddha-hood—absolute enlightenment. This celebrated *bodhí drúm*, or Tree of Wisdom, has long ago disappeared; but a lineal descendant of the famous fig is now within the courtyard of the great temple, and is reverenced as the sacred tree itself both by Hindus and Buddhists, many of the latter coming from Nepál, Arakan, Burma, and Ceylon on pilgrimage to the holy spot. To the east is a massive brick temple, described below. The *rájásthán* or palace in the northern portion of the ruins, now partially restored, measures 1482 feet by 1006 in its greatest dimensions; it was probably the residence of the Buddhist King Asoka (250 B.C.), and his successors on the throne of Magadha. Immediately south of the palace, and on the spot where Buddha sat under the sacred *pípal* tree, in the 6th century B.C., King Asoka built a small temple, *circa* 250 B.C. Recent explorations have brought to light remains of this ancient shrine buried under the foundations of the existing one, which was built by a Burmese

king in the early years of the 14th century A.D. on the site of Asoká's early *vihar*, described by Hwen Thsang.

The temple of the 14th century fell in its turn into decay, and its ruins have become the subject of antiquarian research. General Cunningham has published the results of his labours in the *Journal of the Archæological Survey*. A few years ago, the Burmese Government attempted a restoration of the great temple, but without success. The Bengal Government thereupon undertook the work, and placed it in the hands of Mr. J. D. Beglar, who has kindly furnished the following description of this celebrated shrine. The existing temple of Buddh Gayá consists externally of a tall spire about 47 feet square at the base, rising from a terrace 80 feet long by 78 feet wide. The terrace itself is 30 feet high, and the spire, without the pinnacle, rises to a height of nearly 160 feet above the floor below. The tower is hollow, and consists of four tiers of chambers, the two lower chambers of which have been always accessible. A third chamber has long been visible, owing to the falling off of the masonry in front; and the existence of a fourth, reaching to the very top of the square portion of the tower, was disclosed during the recent repairs. The lowest chamber originally enshrined a clay figure of Buddha, which was demolished by the Burmese during the repairs they undertook in 1878, and replaced by a misshapen gilt brick and mortar figure. This has in its turn been removed and replaced by the largest stone figure of Buddha that could be found in Buddh Gayá. The figure rests on a great raised throne of stone, which itself encloses and buries a more ancient small throne, within which were found deposits of precious stones which have been placed in the Museum at Calcutta.

The upper chamber contains a masonry throne, also enclosing an inner and smaller one, but it has been always empty. The temple was enclosed within what is known as the Buddhist railing, portions of which were found buried beneath the accumulated debris of centuries, and have been as far as possible set up in their original positions. The character of the inscriptions, as well as the boldness and style of the sculptured scenes and ornamentations, indicate the date of the construction of the railing to be the 3rd century B.C. Several pillars of this interesting railing were, however, carried off many years ago by the *mahant* or head priest of the adjacent monastery, and now support the verandah round the great quadrangle of the *mahant's* residence.

Within the court of the temple, remains of all the ancient buildings mentioned by Hwen Thsang have been found buried under an accumulation of rubbish to a depth of nearly 30 feet in places. The outside of the wall of the great monastery, adjoining and to the north of the great temple, mentioned by Hwen Thsang, has also been exhumed and found in a fair state of preservation. It is adorned with

niches and sculptured figures, mostly, however, in fragments. Excavations to the south of the temple have brought to light a handsome flight of stone steps leading into what was a tank, with remains of ornamental cloisters on the north bank. On the east, and in front of the temple, besides numerous minor objects of interest, the remains have been exhumed of a stone gateway consisting of very massive pillars and architraves profusely ornamented. On the west side of the temple, the fall of a wall in 1880 disclosed the original back wall of the temple. Buried 30 feet under the debris, a handsomely ornamented throne was found, in the vicinity of which were fragments very much decayed, of the holy *pípal* tree. The accumulation of rubbish has caused the elevation of the modern representative of this ancient *pípal* to a height of 45 feet above the original plan of the courtyard. A deposit of precious stones was also found here within a plaster figure of Buddha, which was seated in a niche immediately over the throne. These relics, too, have been placed in the Calcutta Museum.

Pilgrims visit Buddh Gayá by thousands, and deposit their offerings under the sacred *pípal* tree; but since the abolition of the fees formerly levied, the exact number cannot be accurately estimated. Close by the temple is a large convent of Sanyásís, the *mahant* or abbot of which shows visitors over the convent after they have visited the temple.

Buddh Gayá is now easily reached by the Patná and Gayá State line, which leaves the East India Railway at Bankipur, and brings pilgrims to Gayá station six miles by road from the Buddh Gayá shrines.

Buddhain (or *Buddhavana*; 'Fo-tho-fa-na' of Hwen Thsang).—Hill in Gayá District, Bengal; 17 miles north-east of Kurkihár village. Lat. 25° N., long. 85° 31′ E. On account of its commanding position, it was made one of the stations of the great Trigonometrical Survey.

Buddri.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh.—*See* BHADRI.

Budge-Budge.—Village in Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal. —*See* BAJ-BAJ.

Budhána (or *Burhána*).—South-western *tahsíl* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the West Kálí Nadí and the Jumna, and traversed by the Hindan river and the Eastern Jumna Canal. Area, 286 square miles, of which 215 are cultivated. Population (1881) 169,650; land revenue, £28,896; total revenue, £31,849; rental paid by cultivators, £72,047. The *tahsíl* contains 2 criminal courts; but in civil matters the jurisdiction is vested in the *munsif* of Shamlí. Three police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 36 men; municipal or town police, 48; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 236.

Budhána.—Town in Budhána *tahsíl*, Muzaffarnagar District, North-

Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Budhána *tahsíl*. Situated on the right bank of the river Hindan, distant from Muzaffarnagar 19 miles south-west. Lat. 29° 16′ 50″ N., long. 77° 31′ 10″ E.; population (1881) 6232, namely, 3937 Hindus, 2251 Musalmáns, 43 Jains, and 1 unspecified. A small municipal income is derived from a house-tax for police and conservancy purposes under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856. The outer walls of the houses adjoin each other so as to form a kind of fortification, through which four openings, called gates, give access to the town. *Bázár*, first-class police station, post-office. Malarious fever occasionally prevails. During the Mutiny the old fort of Budhána was occupied by Khairáti Khán of Parasauli, with the assistance of the Jaula people, but recovered on the 15th of September 1857.

Budhátá.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 89° 12′ E. Once a very flourishing place, and still a considerable trading village. In 1857 it contained a police station, salt warehouse (*golá*), landholder's revenue court, and many rice granaries; markets were held twice a week. Ruins of extensive masonry buildings are visible, and there is a set of 12 temples dedicated to Siva, called Dwádas *mandir*. Annual fairs are held at the Hindu festivals of the *Rás-játrá*, *Durgá-pújá*, and *Káli-pújá*.

Budhpur.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; situated on the Kásái (Cossye) river. Lat. 22° 58′ 15″ N., long. 86° 44′ E. Extending for two miles along the bank are several ruins of what are thought to be Jain temples. A number of carved slabs of stone are scattered about; and an extensive collection of octagonal headstones is believed to mark the graves of the early settlers. About four miles to the north, at Pákbírá, is a group of temples with a colossal figure, about 9 feet high, supposed to represent one of the Tírthankaras or deified saints of the Jains.

Budihál. — *Táluk* in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore Native State. Contains 6 *hoblís*, with 164 primary and 54 secondary villages. Area, 369 square miles; population (1872) 37,337. Land revenue (1880–81), exclusive of water-rates, £5302. Cocoa-nut palms are largely grown. Head-quarters at Huliyár.

Budihál. — Village in Budihál *táluk*, Chitaldrúg District, Mysore Native State, and formerly head-quarters of the Budihál *táluk*. Lat. 13° 37′ N., long. 76° 28′ E.; population (1872) 821. The fort, erected by an official under the Vijayanagar dynasty, contains several inscriptions of the 16th century. It suffered during the wars between the Muhammadans and Maráthás, and is now in a ruinous state. It was one of the last places at which the insurgents held out during the disturbance of 1830. The head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name have been transferred to Huliyar.

Búdikot ('*Fort of Ashes*').—Village in Kolár District, Mysore Native State. Lat. 12° 54′ 40″ N., long. 78° 9′ 50″ E.; population (1881) 1266. Birthplace of Haidar Ali, who was born in 1722, when his father, Fateh Muhammad Khán, was living at Búdikot as Faujdár of Kolár under the Nawáb of Sira. Small fair held weekly on Mondays, attended by 100 persons.

Buffalo Rocks (*Liep Kywon*, or 'Turtle Island').—Lat. 16° 19′ to 16° 22′ N., long. 94° 12′ E., bearing nearly S.½W. from Calventura Rocks, and distant therefrom 10 or 11 leagues. A group of rugged detached rocks extending nearly north and south for 3 miles, and lying off the coast, 29 miles from shore, bearing north from the western extremity of Cape Negrais, British Burma. The North Buffalo is about half a mile to the south-west of South Buffalo Island, and separated from it by the Perforated and Pillar Rocks. On the west side of the rocks the soundings are regular—20 fathoms about a mile from them, and 50 or 60 fathoms at 5 leagues distant.

Búkera.—Village in Alahyár-jo-Tando *táluk*, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; 18 miles east from Haidarábád. Population about 700, chiefly Musalmáns, engaged in agriculture, trade, and fishing. There are four tombs here held in some repute by the Musalmán community; one, that of Shaikh Banapotrá, is said to be 500 years old; another, Pír Fazl Sháh's, 400 years old. A fair is held at these tombs twice a year, and is attended by thousands of Musalmáns.

Bukkacherla.—Village in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. The site of an important water project in connection with the Túngábhadra irrigation system. This project, now completed, consists of anicuts across the Pennár and Badrápurnala rivers; a canal 18 miles in length and 52 yards broad, with an average depth of 7 feet of water, to feed the Anantápur, Singánámalla, Kondapúr, and Perúr tanks; and a great reservoir in the place of the present Bukkacherla tank; erected at a cost of £135,150; irrigates about 11,000 acres of waste land, which now yields in land revenue £6400 per annum.

Bukkapatnam.—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Trunk Road from Bangalore to Bellary. Population (1881) 3680. The station of a sub-magistrate and police force. Besieged in 1740 by the Pálegár of Raidrúg. The Pálegár of Bellary raised the siege, and, having been admitted as an ally within the fortifications, seized the place. The tank here is the largest in the District, and possesses some historical interest. It is formed by a dam, erected 400 years ago across the Chitrávati river, connecting the two low ranges of hills which flank that stream, and irrigates 3500 acres, yielding £2100 per annum in land revenue.

Bukkaráyasamúdram.—Village in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency.—*See* BAKKARAYASAMUDRAM.

Bukkur (*Bakhar*).—Fortified island in the river Indus, lying between the towns of Sukkur (Sakhar) and Rohri, in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 42′ 45″ N., and long. 68° 56′ 30″ E. Bukkur is a rock of limestone, oval in shape, 800 yards long, 300 wide, and about 25 feet in height. The channel separating it from the Sukkur shore is not more than 100 yards wide, and, when the river is at its lowest, about 15 feet deep in the middle. The eastern channel, or that which divides it from Rohri, is much broader, being, during the same state of the river, about 400 yards wide, with a depth of 30 feet in the middle. The Government telegraph line from Rohri to Sukkur crosses the river here by the island of Bukkur. A little to the north of Bukkur, and separated from it by a narrow channel of easy passage, is the small isle of Khwája Khizr (or Jind Pír), containing a shrine of much sanctity; while to the south of Bukkur is another islet known as Sádh Bela, well covered with foliage, and also possessing some sacred shrines. Almost the whole of the island of Bukkur is occupied by the fortress, the walls of which are double, and from 30 to 35 feet high, with numerous bastions; they are built partly of burnt and unburnt brick, are loopholed, and have two gateways, one facing Rohri on the east, and the other Sukkur on the west. The fort presents a fine appearance from the river, and has a show of great strength, which in reality it does not possess. Until 1876, Bukkur was used as a jail subsidiary to that at Shikárpur. That Bukkur, owing to its insulated position, must always have been considered a stronghold of some importance under Native rule, is evidenced by its being so frequently a bone of contention between different states. So early as A.D. 1327, when Sind was an appanage of the Delhi Empire, Bukkur seems to have been a place of note, from the fact of trustworthy persons being employed by the Emperor Muhammad Tughlak to command there. During the reign of the Samma princes, this fort seems to have changed hands several times, being occasionally under their rule, and at times under that of Delhi. During the reign of Sháh Beg Arghún, the fortifications of Bukkur appear to have been partially, if not wholly, rebuilt, the fort of Alor being broken up to supply the requisite material. In 1574, the place was delivered up to one Keshú Khán, a servant of the Mughal Emperor Akbar Sháh. In 1736, the fortress fell into the hands of the Kalhora princes, and at a subsequent date into that of the Afgháns, by whom it was retained till captured by Mír Rustam Khán of Khairpur. In 1839, during the First Afghan war, the fort of Bukkur was ceded by the Khairpur Mírs to the British, to be occupied by them, and it so remained till the conquest of the Province in 1843. Bukkur was the principal British arsenal in Sind during the Afghán and Sind campaigns.

Bulandshahr. — District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the

North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 3′ 30″ and 28° 42′ 45″ N. lat., and between 77° 20′ and 78° 31′ 45″ E. long. Area (1881) 1914·9 square miles; population, 924,822. Bulandshahr is a District of the Meerut (Mírath or Merath) Division. It is bounded on the north by Meerut District; on the west by the river Jumna; on the south by Aligarh; and on the east by the Ganges. The administrative head-quarters are, on account of its central situation, at the town of BULANDSHAHR, but KHURJA is the most populous city in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Bulandshahr forms a portion of the Doáb, or alluvial plain, enclosed between the Ganges and the Jumna, and presents the usual sameness which characterizes all parts of that monotonous tract. Its surface exhibits to the eye an almost uniform level of cultivated soil, stretching from one great boundary river to the other, with a scarcely perceptible watershed in its centre separating their respective tributaries. The plain follows the general slope of the Doáb from north-west to south-east, as indicated by the courses of the two main streams themselves, no less than by those of the minor channels. The average elevation is about 650 feet above the sea. Shortly before reaching the bed of either arterial river, the central plateau descends abruptly by a series of terraces, scored with deeply-cut ravines, into the *khádir* or low-lying alluvial valley which forms the actual bank. The upland plain, here as elsewhere throughout the Doáb, is naturally dry and barren, intersected by sandy ridges, and rapidly drained by small watercourses, which have excavated for themselves a network of petty gorges in the loose and friable soil. But this unpromising region has been turned into a garden of cereals, cotton, and dye-plants by the industry of its inhabitants and the enterprise of its modern rulers, especially through the instrumentality of artificial irrigation. The Ganges Canal passes through the whole length of the District from north to south, entering in three main branches, one of which again divides into two near the town of Sikandarábád. The central branch is navigable throughout the District; and the whole system is distributed to the fields around by 626 miles of lesser ramifications. The Fatehgarh branch of the Lower Ganges Canal also intersects the entire length of the District, and is largely utilized for irrigation. Under the beneficial influence of the water so supplied, cultivation has spread widely in Bulandshahr. There is now little waste land in the District, except a few patches of worthless jungle in the neighbourhood of the Ganges; and even this is rapidly disappearing wherever the soil is sufficiently good to repay the cost of tillage. There is also comparatively little barren land known as *úsar*, covered with the white saline efflorescence called *reh*, and incapable of producing any vegetation, and the unprofitable area has decreased in Bulandshahr District since the date of the settlement.

The Ganges flows along the north-eastern border of the District for a distance of 45 miles, with a maximum velocity of current in time of flood of 12 feet per second, and a minimum velocity in the cold season of 3 feet. The river is liable to the formation of shoals, and constant alterations of its main channel; its course changes yearly, and large portions of land on its north-eastern bank are annually cut away and deposited elsewhere. The south-western bank alters but little, being protected at many places by strong headlands of hard clay and *kankar*, reaching 20 feet above high flood-level; on the north side of the river the banks are low and shelving, and at a point near Ahar during floods the low-lying surrounding country is liable to inundation. The Ganges is navigable all the year round, but during February and March the water is often very shallow in places. The second boundary river, the Jumna, first touches upon the District opposite Delhi, and then flows along its south-west border for 50 miles, with a flood velocity of about 4½ feet per second, and a cold weather velocity of about 18 inches. There is no irrigation from the Jumna, and the navigation is chiefly confined to the rafting of timber and the transport of grain and cotton in small quantities. The bed of the river is composed of micaceous silt, and there are no rapids, or even eddies, except during the rains. Of the internal streams, the Kálí Nadí or Kálindi divides the District into two parts, entering it from Meerut on the north, and, flowing in a tortuous south and south-easterly direction for about 50 miles, passes into Aligarh. In Bulandshahr, the Kálí Nadí is little more than a natural drain to carry off the superfluous water from the surrounding country. It is navigable in the rains by boats of about 4 tons burthen, but it is seldom, if at all, used for this purpose. The Hindan also enters this District from Meerut, and after a winding and irregular course of about 20 miles, falls into the Jumna at Mangrauli village. It flows between high shelving banks, and is not a navigable stream. In the hot weather the water is sometimes so low that not even a small boat could cross it. Other minor streams are the Karon, Patwai, and Chhoiya.

There are no reserved forests in Bulandshahr, but isolated groves of various sorts of fruit and timber trees are numerous. The commonest and most useful tree is the *kakar* (Acacia arabica), the wood of which is hard and tough, and used for making agricultural implements, cart-wheels, boxes, etc., and also for burning into charcoal. *Shisham* (Dalbergia sissoo), a well-grained heavy wood, is largely used for beams, planks, and for articles of furniture. *Dhák* (Butea frondosa) is mainly used for fuel in the shape of charcoal. The country has been much denuded of trees of late years, owing to the great demand for fuel for the railway. Salt, saltpetre, and *kankar* are the only minerals worthy of notice. The wild animals include hyænas, wolves, antelopes, hog,

and jackals. The *magar* and *gharial*, two species of crocodile, are found in the Ganges and Jumna.

History.—The early traditions of the people assert that the modern District of Bulandshahr formed a portion of the great Pandava kingdom of Hastinapur; and that, after that city was cut away by the Ganges, the tract was administered by a Governor who resided at the ancient town of AHAR. Whatever credence may be placed in these myths, we know from the evidence of inscriptions that the District was inhabited by Gaur Bráhmans, and ruled over by the Gupta dynasty, in the 3rd century of our era. Few glimpses of historic light have been cast upon the annals of this region before the advent of the Muhammadans, with whose approach authentic history begins for the whole of Northern India. In 1018, when Mahmúd of Ghazní arrived at Baran (as the town of Bulandshahr is still officially called to the present day), he found it in possession of a native prince named Hardatta. The presence of so doughty an apostle as Mahmúd naturally affected the Hindu ruler; and accordingly the Rájá himself, and ten thousand followers, came forth, says the Musalmán historian, 'and proclaimed their anxiety for conversion and their rejection of idols.' This timely repentance saved their lives and property for the time; but Mahmúd's raid was the occasion for a great immigration towards the Doáb of many fresh tribes, who still hold a place in the District. In 1193, Kutab-ud-dín appeared before Baran, which was for some time strenuously defended by the Dor Rájá, Chandra Sen; but through the treachery of his kinsman Jaipál, the town was at last captured by the Musalmán force. The traitorous Hindu accepted the faith of Islám and the *chaudhrí*-ship of Baran, where his descendants still reside, and own some small landed property. The 14th century is marked as the epoch when many of the present tribes inhabiting Bulandshahr first gained a footing in the region. Numerous Rájput adventurers poured into the defenceless country, and expelled the unhappy Meos from their lands and villages. This was also the period of the early Mughal invasions; so that the condition of the Doáb was one of extreme wretchedness, caused by the combined ravages of pestilence, war, and famine, with the usual concomitant of internal anarchy. The firm establishment of the Mughal dynasty gave a long respite of tranquillity and comparatively settled government to these harassed Provinces. They shared in the administrative reconstruction of Akbar, and their annals are devoid of incident during the flourishing reigns of his great successors. Here, as in so many other Districts, the proselytizing zeal of Aurangzeb has left permanent effects in the large number of Musalmán converts; but Bulandshahr was too near the court to afford much opportunity for those rebellions and royal conquests which make up the staple elements of Mughal history. During the disastrous decline of the Imperial

power, which dates from the accession of Bahádur Sháh in 1707, the country round Baran was a prey to the same misfortunes which overtook all the more fertile Provinces of the Empire. The Gújars and Játs, always to be found in the foreground upon every occasion of disturbance, exhibited their usual turbulent spirit; and many of their chieftains carved out principalities from the villages of their neighbours. But as Baran was at this time a dependency of Koil, it has no proper history of its own during the 18th century, apart from that of ALIGARH DISTRICT. Under the Maráthá rule it continued to be administered from Koil; and when that town, with the adjoining fort of Aligarh, was captured by the British forces in 1803, Bulandshahr and the surrounding country were incorporated into the newly-formed District. In 1817, they were transferred from Aligarh to Meerut; and in 1823, the present District was organized by the union of the northern *parganás* of Aligarh with the southern ones of Meerut. From that date till 1857, the peaceful course of history in Bulandshahr is only marked by the opening of the Ganges Canal.

The Mutiny of 1857 was ushered in at Bulandshahr by the revolt of the 9th Native Infantry, which took place on the 21st of May, shortly after the outbreak at Aligarh. The officers were compelled to fly to Meerut, and Bulandshahr was plundered by a band of rebellious Gújars. Its recovery was a matter of great importance, as it lies on the main road from Agra and Aligarh to Meerut. Accordingly, a small body of volunteers was despatched from Meerut for the purpose of retaking the town, which they were enabled to do by the aid of the Dehra Gurkhás. Shortly afterwards, however, the Gurkhás marched off to join General Wilson's column, and the Gújars once more rose in rebellion. Walidád Khán of Málágarh put himself at the head of the movement, which proved strong enough to drive the small European garrison out of the District. From the beginning of July till the end of September, Walidád held Bulandshahr without opposition, and commanded the whole line of communications with Agra. Meantime, the internal feuds went on as briskly as in other revolted Provinces, the old proprietors often ousting by force the possessors of their former estates. But on the 25th of September, Colonel Greathed's flying column set out from Gháziábád for Bulandshahr, whence Walidád was expelled after a sharp engagement, and forced to fly across the Ganges. On the 4th of October, the District was regularly occupied by Colonel Farquhar, and order was rapidly restored. The police were at once reorganized, while measures of repression were adopted against the refractory Gújars, many of whom still continued under arms. It was necessary to march against the rebels in Etah early in 1858, but the tranquillity of Bulandshahr itself was not again disturbed. Throughout the progress of the Mutiny, the Játs almost all took the side of Govern-

ment, while the Gújars and Musalmán Rájputs proved our most irreconcilable enemies.

Population.—The earliest attempt to enumerate the inhabitants of Bulandshahr, made in 1847, returned a total population of 699,093 souls, or 376 to the square mile. In 1853, the District was included in the first regular Census; when it was then found, in spite of a considerable transfer of villages to Delhi and Aligarh, that the population amounted to 778,342 souls, or 427 to the square mile. At the Census of 1865, the numbers had risen to 800,431 souls. In 1872, the returns showed a further advance to the total of 936,667, being an increase of 136,236 persons in the short space of seven years. During the next nine years, however, the population showed a decrease, the Census of 1881 returning the numbers at 924,822, or 11,845 less than in 1872. This decrease is attributable to a very severe fever epidemic in 1879, which is said to have more than decimated the population. The Census of 1881 was taken over an area of 1914·9 square miles, the returns giving the number of males at 491,958, and the females at 432,864; total, 924,822, residing in 1510 villages and 96,446 houses. Proportion of males in total population, 52·1 per cent. The preponderance of males is due, in part, to the former prevalence of female infanticide; but this practice, which all the vigilance of Government was long unable to suppress, is now disappearing under the stringent regulations put in force under the Act of 1870. With regard to religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 748,256, or 80·9 per cent.; Musalmáns, 175,458, or 19·1 per cent.; Jains, 967; Sikhs, 24; Pársís, 2; and Christians, 115. Amongst Hindus, the Bráhmans muster very strongly, the enumeration disclosing as many as 93,265 persons belonging to the sacred class. They hold between them a large number of entire villages, besides being part-proprietors of many others. A portion of one Bráhman clan in this District has embraced Islám, though still maintaining its relationship with the Hindu branch. The second great class, that of the Rájputs, is also numerous, being returned at 77,132 souls. They are the most important landowning element in Bulandshahr, holding altogether 464 entire villages, together with shares in several more. Badgújars are their wealthiest clan, owning nearly one-seventh of the total area. A large branch of them are Musalmáns, who, till quite lately, have kept up many Hindu customs in their marriage ceremonies and other social observances. To the present day they will not slaughter cattle, and retain the Hindu prefix of *Thákur* or Kunwár as a title of respect. The Bháls, another Rájput clan, are also divided into a Hindu and a Musalmán branch. It is noticeable in each case that the Muhammadan families are wealthier and more powerful than their kinsmen of the ancient faith. The Baniyás or trading classes number 41,921 persons, and hold 36 villages, nearly all of which have

been acquired under British rule. But the great mass of the population in Bulandshahr, as in all parts of the North-Western Provinces, belongs to the classes enumerated in the Census returns as 'other Hindu castes,' aggregating 535,938 souls. Amongst them, the most numerous are the Chamárs (151,541 persons), after whom come the Játs (53,380), Gújars (50,710), Lodhás (50,150), and Bhangís (30,531). The Musalmáns, who form an important element in the proprietary body, are classified according to sect into Sunnis, 168,305, and Shiás, 7153. Among the Muhammadans are included 20,075, originally belonging to Hindu castes, of whom upwards of three-fourths, or 15,902, are Rájputs by race. Of the Christian population of 115, 18 are natives, and the remainder Europeans or Eurasians. One large estate of 63 villages is in the hands of a Eurasian family. The total agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 515,648. The District contains 12 towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, KHURJA, 27,190; BULANDSHAHR or BARAN, 17,863; SIKANDARABAD, 16,479; SHIKARPUR, 10,708; JAHANGIRABAD, 10,319; ANUPSHAHR, 8234; DIBAI, 8216; SIYANA, 6532; JEWAR, 6219; GALAOTHI, 5404; AURANGABAD, 5210; and DANKAUR, 5122. These figures show an urban population of 127,496 persons, leaving 797,326 for the rural population. The 1510 villages and towns in Bulandshahr are thus classified in the Census Report, according to population:—335 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 599 from two to five hundred; 397 from five hundred to a thousand; 127 from one to two thousand; 29 from two to three thousand; 11 from three to five thousand; 7 from five to ten thousand; 2 from ten to fifteen thousand; 2 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 upwards of twenty thousand inhabitants. The language in use in the country districts is Hindí, the Musalmáns of the towns speak Urdu, and the town Hindus use a dialect compounded of both. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census Report classified the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 8847; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1793; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7969; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 183,496; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 77,209; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 38,304 labourers, 29 men of rank and property without occupation, and 174,401 unspecified, including male children), 212,734.

Agriculture.—During the last thirty-five years, the cultivated area of Bulandshahr has increased by nearly 100,000 acres, and the margin of cultivable soil is still being rapidly reclaimed. In 1882, the land under tillage amounted to 857,445 acres, almost equally divided between spring and rain crops. Wheat, barley, and gram are the staple products

of the *rabí* harvest; and common millets and pulses of the *kharif*. Indigo is also widely cultivated, forming one of the main commercial crops; and cotton, safflower, and tobacco are grown in all parts of the District. In 1882, the acreage under the principal crops was returned as follows:—*Joár* and *bájrá*, 210,837 acres; wheat and barley, 287,803 acres; cotton, 69,685 acres; Indian corn, 64,526 acres; pulses, 51,468 acres. The advantages of irrigation are thoroughly appreciated in Bulandshahr, more than one-fourth of the cultivated area being artificially supplied with water. In 1882, as much as 308,110 acres were thus treated, and since that period the amount of irrigated land has increased. Canals alone afforded water to 148,141 acres; but even this is far from showing the whole benefit derived from these undertakings, as they have been instrumental in promoting the growth of valuable export products, such as cotton, indigo, and oil-seeds, rather than cheap food-stuffs. Canal irrigation is both cheaper and better than the old method of watering from wells, and by its comparative certainty is eliminating the element of chance from the agriculture of the District. Manuring is little practised, as the expense is beyond the limited means of the cultivators. A model farm was established near Baran for five years for purposes of experiment. Its results were in favour of the belief that under existing circumstances the native methods, developed and improved, are the best for the country and the people. The condition of the peasantry has been greatly ameliorated of late years, and they are now as comfortably off as in any portion of the Doáb. Few cultivators are in debt to the village bankers, nor are those functionaries acquiring landed property so rapidly as in other Districts. About one-half of the cultivated area is held by tenants-at-will, the remainder being divided between proprietary and hereditary cultivators. Bulandshahr is one of the few Districts in the North-Western Provinces which possesses a territorial aristocracy, residing upon their ancestral estates, and exercising over the people a larger influence, for good or for evil, than any absentee could hope to acquire. Thirteen of them have been invested with magisterial powers within the limits of their respective *parganás*. Rents are payable both in kind and in money, the hereditary cultivators having in either case a prescriptive right to lower rates than the general body of tenants. Best irrigated lands bring in £1, 4s. per acre; best unirrigated, 14s.: outlying lands—irrigated, 8s. to 10s. 6d. per acre; unirrigated, 3s. 6d. to 5s. The best agriculturists are the Lodhás, Játs, and Jhajhars, and next to them the Tagas and Ahírs. The worst cultivators are the Gújars and Mewátis, but the former are steadily improving. The rise in price of agricultural produce has induced cultivators to extend the size of their holdings, and competition for land has consequently become very great. The ordinary prescripti-

rate for lands paying rent in kind is one-third; and the rate for ordinary cultivators, one-half of the produce. This is usually paid in grain, an allowance being made for all other products grown on the land beside the principal crop. Under another system of division, the standing crop is appraised, and the landlord takes his share in kind, or its equivalent in money,—either one-half, two-fifths, or one-third, etc. Wages and prices have nearly doubled since 1850. Agricultural labourers are usually paid in grain to the value of about 3d. a day, rising at harvest time to as much as 6d.; women obtain two-thirds and boys one-half of a man's wages. Skilled labourers obtain from 12s. to £1, 10s. a month, the wages of stonecutters occasionally rising as high as £2. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows in 1882: Gram, 5s. 2d. per cwt.; *bájrá*, 5s. per cwt.; *joár*, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; wheat, 5s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Bulandshahr suffered in former times from famines due to continued drought; but there is reason to hope that the spread of irrigation has removed this cause of apprehension for the future. The people still remember with horror the scarcity of 1837, which has indelibly imprinted its miseries on the popular mind. Another great famine, also due to drought, occurred in 1860, when the Bulandshahr branch canal was constructed as a relief work, giving occupation to 2500 able-bodied persons; and in addition gratuitous assistance was afforded to 11,396 weak or aged applicants. The District was affected even more severely than its neighbours by the rainless season of 1868–69; but, owing doubtless to the great increase of irrigation since 1860, it showed no signs of famine. There were large reserves of grain in store, and exportation went on briskly towards the centres of distress. Prices of course rose greatly above the average, *joár* being quoted at 12 *sers* the rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt.; but no relief works were needed, and no demand for employment existed. As a rule, when grain rises as high as 8 *sers* the rupee, or 14s. per cwt., measures of relief should be adopted. However, as canal irrigation is still advancing, such a necessity will probably never again arise. The communications also are excellent, and amply suffice for all purposes of importation, if the local crops should ever prove insufficient for the wants of the inhabitants.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The chief exports from Bulandshahr are safflower and indigo, but large quantities of cereals are also despatched eastward and westward. The District not only supplies its own needs in the consumption of cotton, but has a surplus of about 36,000 cwts. available for exportation. Anúpshahr is a large depôt for wood and bamboos. The manufactures are unimportant, consisting chiefly of fine muslins at Sikandarábád, printed cloths at Jahángírábád, and carpets at Jewar. Saltpetre is produced in the crude state at 95 factories,

scattered through the country villages. Common salt was formerly made in large quantities, but its manufacture is now prohibited by law. The country trade is carried on at the local markets, of which the most largely frequented is at Dibhái. There the exports of country cloth in 1882, as registered at the railway station, averaged 700 *maunds* a month. The only religious fair of any importance is that held at Anúpshahr, which attracts about 50,000 people from the neighbouring Districts. On the same day, the full moon of the month of Kártik, nearly an equal number assemble at Rájghát, but all come and return by train, and do not stay more than one day. The annual horse show and District fair, held at the head-quarters station in the last week of February, is said to be the most prosperous assembly of its kind in the North-Western Provinces, and is visited by people from all parts of India. Prizes are given to the value of about £400. The main line of the East Indian Railway passes through the whole length of Bulandshahr, with stations at DADRI, SIKANDARABAD, CHOLA, and KHURJA. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway also traverses the south-eastern corner of the District, crossing the Ganges at Rájghát, where it has a station, and another at Dibhái. The roads are in excellent order; and the Ganges, the Jumna, and the canals are all employed as highways for commercial purposes, so that there is no lack of land or water carriage.

Administration.—No statistics as to the public accounts of this District in the early period of British rule can now be recovered, as the records were destroyed during the Mutiny. In 1860–61, the revenue amounted to £222,300, of which £109,866, or nearly one-half, was contributed by the land-tax. In the same year, the expenditure on all items was £102,162, or less than half the revenue. In 1870–71, the receipts had risen to £250,447, of which £124,121, or almost exactly one-half, was the product of the land-tax. In 1881, the land revenue remained practically the same. This increase of revenue is largely due to the benefits derived from canal irrigation. Meanwhile, the expenditure had fallen to £100,163, or two-fifths of the receipts. The District is ordinarily administered by a Magistrate-Collector and two Assistants, a Deputy Collector, four *tahsíldárs*, and two *munsifs*. In 1880–81, there were 29 magisterial and 9 civil courts. The regular and municipal police numbered 879 men of all grades in 1880, maintained at a cost of £8848, of which £6522 were contributed from imperial and £2326 from local funds. There was thus 1 regular policeman to every 2·20 square miles and to every 1052 inhabitants. This force was supplemented by 1974 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, whose pay, defrayed by the landlords or villagers, amounts to an estimated sum of £7153 annually. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2853 men, giving

one man to every 323 inhabitants and to every ·67 of a square mile. The District contains one jail, the average number of prisoners in which was 964 in 1850, 127 in 1860, 137 in 1870, and 224 in 1880. In 1860, the persons admitted numbered 1321; in 1870, 735; and in 1880, 1716. The total number of persons convicted for all offences, except sanitary cases, great or small, in 1880, was 724, being 1 criminal to every 1121 inhabitants. Education has made rapid advances of late years. In 1845, there were only 187 indigenous schools in Bulandshahr, with a total of 1813 pupils. In 1860, the number of schools had risen to 388, while the roll of pupils amounted to 5882, and the sum expended on education to £2334. In 1871, though the number of schools had decreased to 301, the children under instruction reached the total of 6955, and the sum expended had risen to £3177. In 1880–81, the number of schools under Government inspection, and maintained or supported by the Sate, was 130, with a total of 3938 pupils on the rolls on the 31st March 1882. There were also in the same year 305 elementary indigenous schools, at present (1883) receiving no Government grant-in-aid and uninspected, attended by 3185 pupils, making a total of 435 schools and 7123 pupils. The District is sub-divided into 4 *tahsíls* and 13 *parganás*, with an aggregate, in 1882, of 2644 estates. The average land revenue paid by each estate amounted in that year to £46, 18s. 1d. There are 4 municipalities in the District—namely, Khurja, Bulandshahr, Anúpshahr, and Sikandarábád. In 1880–81, their total income amounted to £5599, and their expenditure to £5346.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bulandshahr is very variable, being cold in winter and hot in summer, dry during the sultry spring winds, and extremely moist during the autumn rains. No thermometrical observations have been made in the District. The average rainfall was 32·5 inches in 1867–68, 13·9 in 1868–69 (the year of scarcity), 21·5 in 1869–70, 32·0 in 1870–71, and 25·18 in 1880, the average rainfall for a period of 30 years being 26·12 inches. Malarious fever is the chief endemic disease of Bulandshahr, being especially prevalent during the rainy reason. Small-pox and cholera occasionally appear in an epidemic form. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1880 was 26,201, or 28·33 per thousand of the population; and of these, 25,150 deaths were assigned to fever, and 524 to bowel complaints. Charitable dispensaries are established in the towns of Baran, Khurja, Sikandarábád, and Anúpshahr, with a resident Assistant Surgeon at each of the three first, and at which a total of 34,047 persons received medical treatment in 1881. The natives thoroughly appreciate the advantages of skilful treatment and European medicines. During 1870–71 the cattle of the District suffered severely from an outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease, accompanied by rinderpest. [For further in-

formation regarding Bulandshahr, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. iii. pp. 1 to 194. Also the *Census Report* of 1881, and the *Annual Administration Reports of the North-Western Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bulandshahr (or *Baran*).—Town and administrative head-quarters of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and a station on the main line of the East Indian Railway. Lat. 28° 24′ 11″ N., long. 77° 54′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 17,863, namely, Hindus, 10,148; Muhammadans, 7600; Jains, 56; Christians, 57; and 'others,' 2. Area of town site, 610 acres. Municipal income (1880–81), £1363; average incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 6¼d. per head of population. Lies on the west side of the Kálí Nadí, and consists of an upper and a lower town, the former and more ancient portion occupying the summit of a high and precipitous hill of artificial formation on the river bank, while the latter or modern town stretches over the low-lying ground to the west. Elevation above sea-level, 741 feet. Baran is a place of great antiquity, coins of Alexander the Great and the Indo-Bactrian kings of Upper India being found to the present day in and around the town. Hardatta, the Dor Rájá of Baran, bought off the first Muhammadan invader, Mahmúd of Ghazní, by large presents and apostasy to Islám. Chandra Sen, the last Hindu ruler, died while gallantly defending his fort against Muhammad Ghori. Khwája Lál Barani, an officer in the Musalmán army who fell in the assault, gives his name to a burial-ground across the river, but not a vestige now remains of any monument to his memory. Sculptured columns of early Hindu character, and other architectural fragments, are not infrequently found when any excavations are made; but there are no buildings of any antiquity *in situ*. The oldest is the tomb of Bahlol Khán, a high officer under the Emperor Akbar, which is close to the Christian cemetery; but, like the Jamá Masjíd or great mosque in the centre of the old town, it is quite plain and unadorned. At the commencement of British rule, Bulandshahr had sunk into utter ruin; there was no *bázár* of any kind, but only a small cluster of houses on the top of the hill, where the village proprietors lived, and a few Chamárs and Lodhás huts at the base. On the administrative head-quarters of the District being fixed here, there was a large influx of officials and people connected with the Courts, and Bulandshahr soon became a fairly thriving and well-to-do little town. The dispensary (built in 1867), and the Anglo-vernacular school with its boarding-house attached, are at the west end of the lower or new town, which there joins immediately on to the Civil Station, containing the Court-houses of the Magistrate-Collector, *munsif's* Court, a public building called the Lowe Memorial in memory of a late Collector, jail, post-office, mission school of the Church of England, canal offices, etc. The *tahsílí* buildings, including the *tahsílí* school, are on the top of the

hill, the approach to the latter being by a fine broad staircase from the *bázár* below. Most of the local gentry have substantial houses in the town which they occupy as occasional residences. A handsome bathing *ghát* on the river bank was completed in 1880 at a cost of £1600, raised by public subscription. In connection with the *ghát* is a market-place, in which the lower storey of the double row of shops serves as a massive embankment against a river flood, and its cost amounted to little less than £10,000. A town hall has also been erected at a cost of £2200, defrayed by one of the District gentry. Probably no town in India has undergone so complete a transformation in a few years. In 1878, it was a village of mud-walls and thatched roofs; it is now (1883) a town of brick and carved stone houses.

Bulcherry.—Island on the sea-face of the Sundarbans, Bengal.—*See* BALCHARI.

Buldána. — District of Berár, in the West Berár Division, lying between 19° 51′ and 21° 1′ 30″ N. lat., and 75° 58′ 45″ and 76° 52′ 45″ E. long. Extreme length from north to south, about 80 miles; average width, 32 miles. Bounded on the north by the river Púrna, on the south by the Nizám's Dominions, on the east by Akola and Básim Districts (Berár), on the west by the Nizám's Dominions and Khandesh District of the Bombay Presidency. Area, 2804 square miles, of which 2166 square miles were returned in 1880–81 as cultivated, 198 square miles as cultivable, and 440 square miles as uncultivable waste. Population in 1881, 439,763, or 156·8 per square mile of area. Number of villages on the Government rent-roll, 1010. Land revenue, 1880–81, £94,798; total revenue (gross) £115,194. For fiscal purposes the District is sub-divided into 3 *táluks*, viz. CHIKHLI, MALKAPUR, and MEHKAR.

Physical Aspects.—The southern part of the District forms part of Berár Bálághát, or Berár-above-the-Gháts. Here the general contour of the country may be described as a succession of small plateaux decreasing in elevation to the extreme south. Towards the eastern side of the District, the country assumes more the character of undulating high lands, favoured with soil of a high quality. The geological formation is trap; a succession of plateaux descends from the highest ridges on the north to the south, where a series of small *gháts* march with the Nizám's territory. The small fertile valleys between the plateaux are watered by streams during the greater portion of the year, while wells of particularly good and pure water are numerous. These valleys are favourite village sites. The north portion of the District occupies the rich valley of the Púrna.

The soil of the undulating highlands in the east of the District is remarkably fine, and the wheat grown here will bear comparison with any produced in India. The principal river is the PENGANGA, which

rises about 4 miles above Deulghat (Dewalghát), in the north-west corner of the District, and flows south-east, passing Mehkar town, into Básim District. The Nalganga, the Viswaganga, and the Ghan rivers, all rising in or close to the Bálághát, and flowing north into the Purna river, are either entirely dry in the hot weather, or leave only chains of pools. The Kata Purna enters the District from the west, and after a course of about 30 miles, passes into the Nizám's territory. None of these rivers are navigable. One of the most remarkable physical features of the District is the lake of Lonar, on the most southerly plateau. The circumference of this lake is 5 miles, and it appears to be the crater of an extinct volcano. The salts which it yields are used for washing and drying chintzes, for which purpose they are exported to considerable distances. A temple on its bank is held in great veneration, and is by far the finest specimen of Hindu architecture in Berár.

The area of reserved forest in the District in 1881–82 was 110·2 square miles, and of unreserved forest, 320 square miles. Though in the ravines of the North Gháts, teak saplings exist in great numbers, no large teak trees are found. *Anjan* trees (Hardwickia binata) are to be found in most of the ravines, and large numbers of *bábul* coppices are scattered about. Many other varieties of fruit and forest trees, some of the latter yielding lac, gums and dyes, flourish throughout the District. Bears, tigers, leopards, hyænas, *sámbhar*, *nílgái*, and wild hog are met with in the hills, and antelope and spotted deer in the valley of the Púrna, which is often visited by wild hog and *nílgái*; black and grey partridge, quail, and water-fowl are among the smaller game to be obtained, and pea-fowl are found in the hills and on the river banks.

History.—The ancient Hemar Panthi temples to be seen at Deulghát on the Penganga, at Mehkar in the south-east of the District, at Sindhker in the south-west, at Pimpalgáon in the east, and the temple on the Lonár Lake, all attest a state of society of which they are the only ascertained records. It is popularly believed that the rulers were Jains when the valley of the Púrna fell under Muhammadan domination. In 1294, Alá-ud-dín, who became Emperor of Delhi in the following year, invaded the Deccan, and established his authority over Ellichpur and its dependencies. He and his successors gradually extended their kingdom southwards; local revolts disturbed, but did not weaken it; and since 1318, Berár has been virtually under Muhammadan rule. About 1437, Alá-ud-dín, son of Ahmad Sháh Báhmani, attacked and routed the allied forces of the King of Khándesh, and the Gujarát Prince at Rohankher, in the north-west of Buldána District; and the site is still shown where, according to tradition, a great battle was fought. After the Báhmani dynasty came the Imád Sháhis, who ruled from Ellichpur. The

Ahmadnagar dynasty followed; and in 1596, Chánd Bíbí, Queen Regent of Ahmadnagar for her son, formally ceded Berár to the Emperor Akbar, who himself visited the Deccan in 1599. His sons, Prince Murád and Prince Dányál, were successively appointed viceroys. Mehkar in Buldána District became one of the *Sarkárs* (administrative divisions) of the *Subahat* or Imperial Province of Berár. After the death of Akbar (1605), Malik Ambar, the Abyssinian representative of the Nizám Sháhí party at Daulatábád, recovered great part of Berár, which he held till his death in 1628; but Sháh Jahán, assisted by the Deshmukh of Sindkher, Lakji Jádún Ráo, re-established the imperial authority. The origin of the powerful Rájput family of Jádún, Deshmukhs of Sindkher, is uncertain, though they are locally reputed to have come from Karwáli in north Hindustán on the Jumna. In 1630, Lakji Jádún Ráo, a commander of 10,000 horse in Malik Ambar's time, deserted to Sháh Jahán, and turned the fate of the war against his former master. Thereafter the Jádúns maintained their allegiance to the Mughal emperors, and obtained honours and titles from them. A daughter of this Lakjí Jádún was the mother of Sivají, the founder of the Maráthá power. During the reign of Aurangzeb, about 1671, the Maráthás, under Pratáp Ráo, Sivají's general, first exacted *chauth*, or one-fourth of the revenue. In 1717, they obtained the formal grant of *chauth* and *sardesh mukhi* from the Emperor Farukhsiyyar. In 1724, Chin Khílich Khán, Viceroy of the Deccan under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, gained a decisive victory over the Imperial forces under Muháriz Khán, at Shakar Khedla (thenceforward called Fatehkhedla, or 'the field of victory'), south of the Pengangá in Buldána District. But he could not shake off the Maráthás, who continued to collect revenue for themselves. In 1760, Mehkar was formally ceded to the Peshwá; in 1769, the Nizám was forced to acknowledge himself Vicegerent for the Poona State, and his authority was weakened by the disastrous defeat at Kardla in 1795. Daulat Ráo Sindhiá, and the Bhonslá of Nágpur, were encamped at Malkápur, when they allowed the British Envoy, Colonel Collins, to depart in August 1803. Then followed the First Maráthá war,—Assaye, Argaum (Argáon), and other victories scarcely less important—which before the close of the year crushed the supremacy of the Maráthás. By the partition treaty of 1804, the Nizám received nearly the whole of Berár. General Wellesley, January 1804, mentions Sindhker as a nest of thieves, and represents the condition of the country as deplorable. In 1813, two Maráthá plundering chiefs occupied Fatehkhedla for three months. After the Pindárí war of 1817–18, the treaty of 1822 conferred on the Nizám the country west of the Wardha, and all claims by the Maráthás were extinguished; but general confusion long continued, and petty battles between *zamíndárs*, rival *tálukdárs*, Rájputs, and Muhammadans, took place at Malkápur,

which was sacked by the Hindus in 1849. A force of Arabs in the service of Báji Ráo, then head of the Jádún family above mentioned, fought a severe battle with the Haidarábád troops in 1851, for which act of rebellion, though disowned by Báji Ráo, his hereditary estates were confiscated, and he himself died a state prisoner in 1856. For several years, the Nizám's Government had failed to provide funds for the payment of the force maintained by the British, in accordance with the treaty of 1800. The settlement of these arrears and of other points in dispute was effected by the treaty of 1853, modified in 1860-61, whereby the territory now known as Berár was assigned to the British.

Population.—The Census of 1867 showed a population of 365,779 persons on an area of 2794 square miles, being 131 per square mile. According to the Administration Report of 1876-77, the population was 404,042, on an area of 2807 square miles; the Census of 1881 returned a total population of 439,763 on an area of 2804 square miles, or 156·8 persons per square mile, thus divided:—Adult males, 141,704; adult females, 132,033; male children under 12 years, 83,539; female children under 12 years, 82,487: total males, 225,243; total females, 214,520. According to religion, Hindus number 405,685; Muhammadans, 30,055; Buddhists and Jains, 3698; Christians, 150; Sikhs, 150; and Pársís, 25. Among Hindus, the number of Bráhmans in 1881 was 10,734; of Kunbís, 177,429; of Mális, 28,897; of Rájputs, 12,018; of Mahars, 47,629; of Baniyás, 10,259; and of other Hindu castes, 117,953. The non-Hindu or aboriginal castes or tribes numbered 4464. Among Muhammadans, Sayads numbered 1802; Mughals, 438; Patháns, 6095; Shaikhs, 20,526; others, 1194. The agricultural population was returned at 278,174; the non-agricultural at 161,589.

The principal towns in the District are—DEULGAON RAJA (population 7025), MALKAPUR (8152), NANDURA (6743), CHIKHLI (4396), DHONEGAON (4259), BULDANA (2975), DEULGHAT (3867), MEHKAR (4373), FATEHKHEDLA (3250).

Agriculture.—The District is rich in agricultural produce; in a seasonable year, a many-coloured sheet of cultivation, almost without a break, covers the valley of the Púrna. In the Bálághát also the crops are very fine. Situated as the District is, in the neighbourhood of the great cotton mart of Khámgáon—only a mile and a half beyond its north-eastern border—and nearer to Bombay than the other Berár Districts, with 3 stations of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in its northern *táluk*, markets for its agricultural produce on favourable terms are easily found. The *ráyat* commences preparation of his fields in January; for the surface ploughing must be finished before the intense heat has caked the soil. Sowings for the *kharíf* crop are begun with the first rain in

ne, and the harvest is gathered in November; the *rabí* crops,
er the rains, ripen early in March. At this time, the want of la
much felt, for an unseasonably heavy fall of rain may almost ent
estroy the crops, if not quickly harvested. Rotation of crop
practised; the principle being, that either wheat or gram, or som
seed, should intervene between each crop of cotton or *joár*. Whe
soil is clearly exhausted, it is allowed to lie fallow for a year or
being manured if manure be obtainable. Deep ploughing is
practised, except to eradicate weeds; for the impression exists, th
thoroughly loosen the soil to any depth is injurious. Sugar-ca
planted in January, and matures in twelve months. For the po
land is prepared in September, and sown in October. Guavas
plantains are carefully cultivated, and yams, sweet potatoes, w
melons, and ordinary vegetables flourish in irrigated gardens. Gr
in-aid, to the amount of £376, were made to 22 villages in 1881
towards water storage. Applications for such grants are now 1
frequent than was formerly the case, but most of the cultivation is
unirrigated. The irrigated area in 1880–81 was returned at 13
acres, grazing land at 79,819 acres. The cattle of the District are s
but handsome and active. Full-sized horses are scarce. The agr
tural stock of the District in 1880–81 comprised 248,911 cows
bullocks; 60,984 buffaloes; 2028 horses; 4905 ponies; 2602 donk
75,792 sheep and goats; 532 pigs; 14,424 carts; and 22,539 plo
The system of land tenure is *ráyatwári*. Under native rule, occup
and payment of revenue were the only titles to land. With the i
duction of the Bombay system of survey and settlement, the cultiv
revenue-payer has become a proprietor, styled *khútadár*, holding
Government as superior landlord, at a fixed assessment for 30 ye
not liable to enhancement on expiry of term, unless on good g
shown. The *khútadár* can sell or mortgage his rights, and also s
and he can, if he likes, relinquish his holding at the close of an
cultural year on giving due notice of his intention. The land is
worked by various forms of co-operation, one of which provides
tenant with plough-cattle.

In 1880–81, 1,386,192 acres were assessed and under cultiva
the chief crops being *joár*, 399,644; cotton, 267,269; wheat, 18
bájrá, 116,184; gram, 62,414; linseed, 28,161; sugar-cane, 28
13,416; *tur*, 10,354; rice, 9244; pulses, 1498; hemp, 1054;
44,987; tobacco, 2274; lac, 9374; other products, 54,759. T
rates per acre are—for land fit for cotton, 1s. 5½d.; wheat, 1s
oil-seeds, 1s. 7d.; *joár*, 1s. 6¾d.; tobacco, 2s. 3d.; opium, 5
2s. 4d.; gram, 2s. 3d. The average produce of land per acre
are, of cotton (cleaned), 70 lbs.; of wheat, 606; of oil-seeds,
joár, 254; of tobacco, 230; of rice, 220; of gram, 376. Th

(1880–81) were—for clean cotton, 5 lbs. per rupee (2s.); for wheat, 40 lbs. per rupee; for gram, 42 lbs. per rupee; for oil-seeds, 38 lbs. per rupee; for tobacco, 8 lbs. per rupee; for rice, 22 lbs. per rupee; for *joár*, 82 lbs. per rupee. Plough-bullocks cost £3, 6s. each; buffaloes, £4; sheep, 4s. 6d. to 5s. each. The rate of wages for skilled labour is 1s. 3d. a day; for unskilled labour, 4d.

Natural Calamities.—Famines have not unfrequently visited the tract of which Buldána District forms part. In 1803, a great famine occurred, from which Mehkar suffered very severely. Drought and blight affect the crops, and unseasonable rain when the spring crops are standing is sometimes very injurious.

Manufactures and Trade.—Coarse cotton cloth is commonly woven. Before the introduction of Manchester piece-goods and the high price of cotton, Mehkar was famous for its *dhotís*, or body cloths. In 1880–81, the number of workers in silk was returned at 82; in cotton, 2779; in wool, 427; in wood, 845; in iron, 646; and 133 in brass and copper; miscellaneous, 913. Steel of fair quality is forged at Deulghát. Weekly markets, some of them very large, are held in several towns and villages. The chief imports are—piece-goods, hardware, metals, spices, salt; exports—cotton, wheat, oil-seeds, and cattle. The District is rich in wheat, and its chief market for this staple is Nándúra, a station of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The principal fairs and *bázárs* are held at Deulgáon Rájá, Mehkar, Fatehkhedla, Chikhli, Dongáon, Selgáon, Mhusla, Janephal, Lonár, Deulghát, Nándúra, and Malkápur.

Roads and Railways.—There are in Buldána 259 miles of made roads, first, second, and third class. The G. I. P. Railway passes through the north portion of the District, from west to east, for 29 miles, having stations at Malkápur, Bíswa Bridge, and Nándúra. There are *seráis* or rest-houses for native travellers at these stations, and rest-houses for Europeans at Malkápur and Nándúra.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with whom are associated Assistants, European and native. An Assistant Commissioner holds his court at Malkápur. There are 3 revenue sub-divisions. The police are under the control of a European District Superintendent; the sanctioned strength of the force in 1880–81 was 75 officers and 374 men, or 1 policeman to every 6 square miles of area. There is one receiving jail; total daily average of inmates in 1881, 55·61. Cost per head yearly, £8, 7s. 6d. on average strength. The proportion of Muhammadan convicts to Muhammadans in the District is more than double that of any other class—a fact which may be attributable to their forming a larger proportionate number of the town population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government, and of Government schools (including 3 girls' schools),

in the same year was 122, having 5546 scholars. The Central Book Depôt of the Province supplies works in Maráthí, English, Sanskrit, Persian, and Urdú. The vernacular tongues are Maráthí and Urdú. No newspaper is printed in the District; and no municipality under Act iv. of 1873 has yet been constituted.

Meteorological and Medical Aspects.—In the north portion of the District, strong and very hot westerly winds prevail from the middle of February till rain falls early in June, and, excepting just about daybreak, they continue throughout the twenty-four hours. In the rainy season, and from October to February, the mornings and nights are pleasantly cool, but the heat in the day is still great. In the Bálághát or south portion of the District, the hot weather is not excessive; the temperature of the rainy season is pleasant; and the cold weather of about three months is most enjoyable, but the great dryness of the air at that time is trying to some constitutions. Highest shade temperature at Buldána in May (1880), 106° F.; lowest in December, 54°. The rainfall in 1880 was 29·17 inches, of which 25·14 inches fell from June to September. The principal diseases are fevers, bowel complaints, worms, and affections of the skin and eyes. The number of deaths registered in 1880 from all causes was 8855, of which number 22 were killed by snake-bite and wild animals. Ratio of reported deaths per 1000 of population, 20·1. The number of births registered in 1880 was 15,455; ratio per 1000 of population, 35·1. In 1880–81, 7 dispensaries and 1 civil hospital afforded medical relief to 24,279 patients; and the number of persons vaccinated by the vaccine department, and at the dispensaries, was 13,356. [For further information regarding Buldána, see the *Berár Gazetteer*, edited by Sir A. C. Lyall (Bombay, 1870). Also the *Census Reports* of 1881; and the *Administration Reports for the Haidarábád Assigned Districts* from 1880 to 1883.]

Bulsár.—Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 208 square miles. One town and 94 villages; occupied houses, 16,214. Population (1881) 80,707, namely, Hindus, 57,087; Muhammadans, 3784; 'others,' 19,836. Land revenue (1874–75), £24,346. There are no alienated villages in this Sub-division. The whole surface is irregular, seamed with river beds, and rising into rocky uplands. Situated on the sea-coast, the climate is considered healthy at all times of the year, but the eastern parts are feverish at certain seasons. Tithal, a village on the coast, is much resorted to as a sanitarium by visitors from Bombay. The Sub-division is abundantly watered by rivers and streams. Of the salt marsh lands, extending over about 12,355 acres, 10,664 acres are under reclamation. The rates of assessment introduced in 1869–70 remain in force until 1898–99. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 37 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 523.

Bíjna, Tori-Fatehpur, and Pahári Bánka; Baraunda, Báoni, Beri, Bíhat, Bijáwar, Charkhári; the Kálinjar *Chaubis*, viz. Paldeo, Pahra, Taráon, Bháisaunda, and Kámta-Rajaula; Chhattarpur, Garrauli, Gaurihar, Jáso, Jigni, Khaniádhána, Lughási, Naigawán, Ribái, Panna, Belhari, and Saríla,—all of which see separately.

Physical Aspects.—The plains of Bundelkhand are diversified by a series of mountains and hills, classed by Franklin, in his *Memoir on the Geology of Bundelkhand*, in three ranges—the Bindáchal, the Panna, and the Bandair. The first of these, which nowhere exceeds 2000 feet above head of the total population; municipal expenditure in the same year, £1154. Bulsár is well placed for trade both by sea and by land. The total value of its coast trade, exclusive of Government stores, in 1880–81 was £83,810, of which £61,859 represented the value of exports, and £22,196 that of imports. Chief imports—piece-goods, tobacco, wheat, fish, and sugar; exports—timber, grain, molasses, oil, firewood, and tiles. Export of timber is the staple of Bulsár trade. The wood brought from the Dáng forests is exported by sea to Dholera, Bhaunagar, and the other ports of Káthiáwár. There are manufactures of cloth for wearing apparel and for sails, silks for women's robes, and bricks, tiles, and pottery. Besides the ordinary sub-divisional revenue and police offices, the town has a subordinate judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Bulti (*Báltistán* or *Iskardo*).—The name given to the tract of country forming the northern part of KASHMIR (Cashmere), and lying between lat. 34° and 36° N., and between long. 75° and 79° E. Formerly an independent State, but it was some years ago subjugated by the Mahárájá of Kashmír, who annexed it to his own dominions.

Bul-Tul (or *Kantal*; also called *Shur-ji-la*).—A pass over the range of mountains bounding the Kashmír valley on the north-east. Lat. 34° 14′ N., long. 75° 33′ E. Forms the water-summit between Kashmír (Cashmere) and Little Tibet; the Drás river (by which name the pass is also sometimes known) flowing from its northern declivity to the Indus, while from its southern slopes runs a feeder of the Sind river, a tributary of the Jhelum (Jehlam) river; elevation above sea-level, 11,300 feet.

Búmawadí (*Bhoomawdee*).—Township in Taung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Sittaung river, and extending north from Shwe-gyin District to the river Thit-nan-tha. The country is level and cultivated along the river bank; but in the interior to the east it is mountainous, and covered with forests of teak and other valuable timber. The chief lakes are Inwon and Zindon, both in the south-west of the township. Population (1881) 13,182. Gross revenue (1881) £2092, of which £581 was land revenue, and £893 capitation tax.

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Bundáre.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. This is one of the chief Kandh villages, and was formerly a stronghold of the practice of human sacrifice known as Meriah or Junna. The ceremony, as performed at Bundáre up to 1849, consisted in the sacrifice of three human beings,—two to the sun, in the east and west of the village, and one in the centre. A short wooden post having been fixed in the ground, the victim was fastened to it by his long hair, and held out by his legs and arms over a grave dug at the foot of the post. While in this position, the priest hacked the back of the victim's neck with the sacrificial knife, repeating as he did so the following invocation:—'O mighty Maniksoro, this is your festal day! The sacrifice we now offer, you must eat; and we pray that our battle-axes may be converted into swords, our bows and arrows into gunpowder and bullets; and if we have any quarrels with other tribes, give us the victory. Preserve us from the tyranny of kings and their officers.' Then addressing the victim: 'That we may enjoy prosperity, we offer you as a sacrifice to our god Maniksoro, who will immediately eat you; so be not grieved at our slaying you. Your parents were aware, when we purchased you from them for 60 rupees, that we did so with intent to sacrifice you; there is therefore no sin on our heads, but on your parents. After you are dead we shall perform your obsequies.' The victim was then decapitated, the body thrown into the grave, and the head left suspended from the post till devoured by birds. The knife remained fixed to the post till all three sacrifices were performed, when it was removed with much ceremony.

Bundelkhand.—Tract of country in Upper India, which may be defined as lying between the river Jumna (Jamuná) on the north, the Chambal on the north and west, the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Ságar (Saugor) Divisions of the Central Provinces on the south, and Rewá or Bághelkhand and the Mirzápur Hills on the south and east. Its limits stretch from 23° 52′ to 26° 26′ N. lat., and from 77° 53′ to 81° 39′ E. long. It comprises the British Districts of Hamírpur, Jálaun, Jhánsi, Lálitpur, and Bánda; the treaty States of Orchha (or Tehri), Datia, and Samthar; and the following States held under *sanads* and grants from the British Government:—Ajaigarh, Alipura; the Hashtbháya *Jágírs* of Dhurwái,

Bíjna, Tori-Fatehpur, and Pahári Bánka; Baraunda, Báoni, Beri, Bíhat, Bijáwar, Charkhári; the Kálinjar *Chaubis*, viz. Paldeo, Pahra, Taráon, Bháisaunda, and Kámta-Rajaula; Chhattarpur, Garrauli, Gaurihar, Jáso, Jígni, Khaniádhána, Lughási, Naigawán, Ribái, Panna, Belhari, and Saríla,—all of which see separately.

Physical Aspects.—The plains of Bundelkhand are diversified by a series of mountains and hills, classed by Franklin, in his *Memoir on the Geology of Bundelkhand*, in three ranges—the Bindáchal, the Panna, and the Bandair. The first of these, which nowhere exceeds 2000 feet above sea-level, commences near Sihonda on the river Sindh, proceeds south-west to Narwár, thence south-east and afterwards north-west to Ajaigarh and Kálinjar, and farther east to Bardarh near the railway between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Allahábád. The plateau which lies behind this range averages 10 or 12 miles in width. The base and lower parts of the hills are of primary formation, chiefly granite and syenite, commonly overlaid by sandstone, but in many cases by trap and formations of volcanic origin. The second range, styled the Panna range, rises to the south of the plateau just described. The summit is a table-land, slightly undulating, with a breadth of about 10 miles, and having an average elevation above the sea, between the Katra Pass and Lohárgáon, of 1050 feet, and between Lohárgáon and the foot of the hills near Pathariya, of about 1200 feet. Where deep ravines allow examination of the formation, the primary rocks are found to be covered by an enormously thick bed of sandstone, which is itself in some places overlaid by rocks of volcanic origin. South-west of this last range, and separated from it by the valley or elongated basin of Lohárgáon is the third or Bandair range, the plateau of which has an average elevation of about 1700 feet above the sea, and on some of the undulations as much as 2000. The Bandair range is generally of sandstone mixed with ferruginous gravel. The extensive basin of Lohárgáon intervening between these ranges is of limestone. The limits of the hilly tract where it bounds the plain are marked by the occurrence of abrupt isolated hills, generally of granitic base, surmounted by sandstone and trap, which, from their steep and nearly inaccessible scarps, form, as in the instances of Kálinjar and Ajaigarh, strongholds which have often enabled the hillmen of Bundelkhand to set at defiance the great Empires of India. From these hills numerous streams flow towards the Jumna; among which are the Sindh with its tributary the Pahúj, the Betwá, the Dhásan, the Bírma, the Ken, the Bágain, the Páisuni, and the Tons. All these flow in a general north-easterly direction. The only one of them useful for navigation is the KEN, which, during the rainy season only, is navigable as far as Bánda, a distance of 60 miles. Notwithstanding the numerous streams which traverse the country, the great depth of the channels in the plains, and the thirsty nature of

the soil among the hills, render irrigation highly important; and to supply means for it, a great number of *jhíls*, or small lakes, have been constructed by embanking the lower extremities of valleys.

The mineral resources of Bundelkhand appear very great. Diamonds are found in Panna, but the yield is small and precarious. In the central tracts there is excellent iron, but at present its production is limited by the supply of charcoal, and even now the jungles in the iron Districts are cleared off faster than they can be renewed. When science has taught how the metal can be extracted with sufficient economy of fuel, Bundelkhand iron and steel will doubtless find a market far beyond the present limits of Gwalior, Háthras, Lucknow, and Cawnpur. A small copper mine has been recently worked in Lálitpur.

Population.—The British Districts of Bundelkhand are within the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. The political superintendence of the Native States is vested in the Bundelkhand Agency, subordinate to the Central India Agency, reporting to the Government of India. Of the 31 Native States within the Agency, only three, namely, Orchha or Tehri, Datia, and Samthar, have formal treaties with the British Government. The other chiefs hold their territories under *sanads*, and are bound by *ikrarnámás*, or deeds of fealty and obedience. The table on the opposite page exhibits in brief the area and population of each District and State, but fuller details will be found in the separate articles.

Agriculture.—Except where hill or jungle predominate, as in several of the Native States, the Province is almost solely agricultural. Much of the soil in the Native States is very poor, being chiefly on the hill ranges mentioned above; but the soil of the plains consists mostly of the 'black cotton soil,' which, notwithstanding its dried appearance in hot weather, has the peculiar property of retaining moisture to a marked degree, and yields in favourable seasons luxuriant crops of cotton and cereals. The principal crops are—*al* (Morinda citrifolia), which yields the dye used in colouring the reddish-brown cloths known as *kharuá; joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájrá* (Penicillaria spicata); *tíl* (Sesamum orientale); and the millets and pulses known as *kangni*, *kutki*, *sámán*, *arhar*, *moth*, *másh*, *masúri*, *khesari*, etc. The *singhára*, or water-caltrop, is largely grown in Hamírpur; and throughout Bundelkhand, the *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia) is cultivated for its flowers and fruit as well as for its timber.

In Orchha, and throughout the greater part of the whole country, the prevailing plan of land settlement is the native system—under which the State, while recognising in every village a head-man with certain advantages, yet keeps the property of the soil in its own hands, acts

[*Sentence continued on* p. 1

AREA, POPULATION, ETC. OF EACH DISTRICT AND STATE IN BUNDELKHAND, IN 1881.

BRITISH DISTRICTS.

District or State.	Area in square miles.	Number of towns and villages.	Number of occupied houses.	Total population.	Males.	Females.	Average density per square mile.
Hamírpur,	2,288	755	83,544	507,337	259,778	247,559	221·6
Jálaun,	1,469	857	66,734	418,142	216,145	201,997	284·5
Jhánsi,	1,567	625	54,404	333,227	172,884	160,343	212·6
Lálitpur,	1,947	670	34,181	249,088	129,799	119,289	127·9
Bánda,	3,061	1166	123,393	698,608	354,377	344,231	221·6
Total,	10,332	4073	362,256	2,206,402	1,132,983	1,073,419	213·5

NATIVE STATES.

District or State.	Area in square miles.	Number of towns and villages.	Number of occupied houses.	Total population.	Males.	Females.	Average density per square mile.
*Orchha (Tehri),	2,015	677	56,139	311,514	162,611	148,903	161·7
Datia,	837	454	29,396	182,598	96,298	86,300	218·3
Samthar,	174	88	7,131	38,633	20,403	18,230	222·3
Dhurwái,	†	†	†	1,598	808	790	†
Bijna,	†	†	†	2,084	1,096	988	†
Tori-Fatehpur,	†	†	†	10,631	5,299	5,332	†
Ajaigarh,	802	323	14,076	81,454	42,409	39,045	101·5
Alipura,	69	26	2,312	14,891	7,929	6,962	214·4
Patiári-Banka,	4	1	216	1,049	520	529	226·0
Baraunda,	238	66	3,320	17,283	8,821	8,462	72·5
Baoni,	117	52	2,970	17,055	8,688	8,367	146·0
Beri,	28	5	738	4,985	2,599	2,386	179·0
Bihat,	13	8	632	4,704	2,294	2,410	358·5
Bijáwar,	973	298	21,877	113,285	60,356	52,929	106·3
Charkhári,	787	287	24,259	143,015	74,448	68,567	181·6
Paldeo,	150	62	4,132	8,824	4,521	4,303	144·3
Pahra,				4,016	2,009	2,007	
Taráon,				3,163	1,635	1,528	
Bháisaunda,				4,073	2,079	1,994	
Kamta-Rajaula,				1,543	858	685	
Chhattarpur,	1,169‡	315‡	27,603‡	164,369	86,148	78,221	143·4
Garrauli,	25	16	913	4,976	2,584	2,392	199·0
Gaurihar,	73	14	1,903	10,691	5,577	5,114	147·0
Jaso,	75	57	1,775	8,050	4,022	4,028	107·5
Jigni,	21	6	510	3,427	1,675	1,752	165·7
Khaniádhána,	§	§	§	13,494	7,089	6,405	§
Ribái,	7	4	483	3,365	1,751	1,614	442·7
Lughási,	47	12	936	6,159	3,194	2,965	130·5
Panna,	2,568	868	45,414	227,306	118,349	108,957	88·5
Belhári,	‖	‖	‖	3,331	1,829	1,502	‖
Saríla,	35	10	864	5,014	2,500	2,514	141·1
Total States,	10,227	3649	247,559	1,416,580	740,399	676,181	138·5
Grand Total,	20,559	7722	609,815	3,622,982	1,873,382	1,749,600	176·2

* Area, towns, and number of houses include those for Tori-Fatehpur, Dhurwái, and Bijna.

† Area, towns, and houses included in the figures for Orchha.

‡ Figures include the area, villages, and houses for Belhárí.

§ Figures included in the Census with those for Gwalior.

‖ Area, villages, and houses included in the figures for Orchha.

Sentence continued from p. 152.] banker and seed-lender for the cultivators, and generally fixes its demand for revenue in proportion to produce or area cultivated. The railway from Jabalpur to Allahábád now creates a demand for various local products for about 100 miles from the line, and through its means, connections with the Bombay trade are springing up; when the connecting country roads are completed, much improvement may be expected. The climate in the plains is frequently sultry, and the heat is great. The prevailing wind from October to May is south-west, that is, up the Gangetic valley; during the other months the wind frequently comes down the valley.

At Nowgong a British garrison is stationed, consisting of 1 battery of artillery, 2 companies of British infantry, 3 troops of Native cavalry, and the head-quarters and wing of a Native infantry regiment. The Bundelkhand Rájkúmar College is established near Nowgong for the education of the sons of chiefs; in 1881, seventeen youths of noble family were being educated there.

History.—According to local tradition, the Gonds were the earliest colonists of Bundelkhand. To them succeeded the Chandel Rájputs, under whose supremacy the great irrigation works of Hamírpur District, the forts of Kálinjar and Ajaigarh, and the noble temples of Khajuráhu and Máhoba, were constructed. The whole Province contains ruins, large tanks, and magnificent temples, built chiefly of hewn granite and carved sandstone, which are supposed to date back to this epoch. Ferishta relates that in the year 1021 A.D., the Chandel Rájá marched at the head of 36,000 horse, 45,000 foot, and 640 elephants, to oppose Mahmúd of Ghazní, whom, however, he was obliged to conciliate with rich presents. In the year 1183, Parmal Deo, the twentieth ruler in succession from Chandra Varma, the founder of the dynasty, was defeated by Prithwi Rájá, ruler of Ajmere and Delhi. After the overthrow of Parmal Deo, the country was exposed to anarchy and to Muhammadan invasions until the close of the 14th century, when the Bundelas, a sub-division of the Garhwa tribe of Rájputs, established themselves on the right bank of the Jumna. They appear to have settled first at Mau, and then, after taking Kálinjar and Kálpi, to have made Máhoni their capital. About 1531, Rájá Rudra Pratáp founded the city o Orchha, and greatly consolidated and extended the kingdom. Th Bundelas became the most powerful among the tribes west of th Jumna; and from this time the name of Bundelkhand may with justic be given to the whole tract of country. Shortly afterwards, the power the Muhammadans began to grow threatening; and Bir Singh Deo, t great-grandson of the founder of Orchha, was compelled to ackno ledge himself a vassal of the Mughal Empire. Champat Rái, howev another chief of the Bundela tribe, held out in the rugged count

bordering on the Betwa, and harassed the Muhammadans by his rapid predatory forays.

The son of Champat Rái, Chattar Sál, continued his father's career with greater eventual success; and, being elected principal leader and chief of the Bundelas, commenced operations by the reduction of the forts in the hills towards Panna. He wasted the country held by his enemies in every direction, and avoiding a general action, managed by ambuscades, aided by his intimate knowledge of the country, to cut off or elude the imperial troops. He captured Kálinjar, and, making that his stronghold, acquired authority over territory yielding nearly a million sterling per annum. In 1734, however, he was so hard pressed by Ahmad Khán Bangash, the Pathán chief of Farukhábád, that he was forced to seek aid from the Maráthás. The Peshwá, Báji Ráo, promptly embraced this opportunity of establishing his ascendancy in Bundelkhand; he surprised and defeated Ahmad Khán, and rescued the Bundela Rájá from his perilous position. He was rewarded by a fort and District in the neighbourhood of Jhánsi, and by a grant of the third part of Eastern Bundelkhand. The Peshwá made over his portion, subject to a moderate tribute, to a Bráhman called Kási Pandit, whose descendants held it until it lapsed to the East India Company. About the same time, Jhánsi was wrested by the Peshwá from the Rájá of Orchha, and entrusted to a *subáhdár*, whose descendants retained it till a recent date. The two remaining shares of the possessions of Chattar Sál continued to be held in small portions by his numerous descendants, or by the nominal adherents and rebellious servants of the declining branches of the family.

The anarchy and petty wars thus ensuing made an opening for Ali Bahádur (a grandson of Báji Ráo by a Muhammadan concubine), who had quarrelled with Madhují Sindhiá, whose troops he had formerly led. After a long and severe contest, he succeeded in establishing his authority over the greater part of the Province. The chief resistance he met with was at Kálinjar, at the siege of which place he died in 1802, after having concluded an arrangement with the Court of Poona (Púna), by which the sovereign and paramount right of the Peshwá over all his conquests in Bundelkhand was declared and acknowledged. Rájá Himmat Bahádur, the spiritual head and military commander of a large body of devotees, who had great influence in the District, professed at first his intention of supporting the right of Shamsher Bahádur, the son of Alí Bahádur, who happened to be absent in Poona at the time of his father's death.

About this time the declared hostility of the subordinate chiefs of the Maráthá Empire to the arrangements of the treaty of Bassein—by which, among other advantages, the British Government acquired territory in Bundelkhand yielding £361,600 a year—occasioned a formal declaration

the part of the British Government of their intention of maintaining the ovisions of that treaty; and this declaration was immediately followed y offensive operations on the part of Sindhiá and the Rájá of Berár, and qually hostile, though more secret, measures of aggression on the part of Holkar. Part of the Maráthá plan of operations was a predatory ncursion into British territory from Bundelkhand, to be headed by Shamsher Bahádur. Rájá Himmat Bahádur, foreseeing in the success of this scheme a diminution of his own authority in Bundelkhand, determined to abandon the Maráthá interest, and to seek his own personal aggrandizement by assisting in the transfer of the Province to the British. An agreement was consequently made, by which the Rájá was granted a tract of territory yielding 20 *lákhs* of rupees (say £200,000) for the maintenance of a body of troops in the service of the British Government, as well as a *jágír* in consideration of his co-operation in the establishment of British authority in Bundelkhand. The British Government were thus enabled easily to bring a force into Bundelkhand for the decision of the contest, while Himmat Bahádur received territory more than double the area of his original possessions. These lands were resumed on his death, and *jágírs* and pensions assigned to his family. Shamsher Bahádur was quickly defeated by a force under Col. Powell, assisted by the troops of Himmat Bahádur; and he was content to accept a provision of 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000) a year from the British Government, with permission to reside at Bánda. On his death in 1823, he was succeeded by his brother Zulfikár Alí.

To him succeeded Alí Bahádur, who joined in the rebellion of 1857, and was therefore deprived of the pension of 4 *lákhs* a year, and placed under surveillance at Indore. He died in 1873, and pensions amounting to £120 were assigned to the family. Of the territory ceded by the Peshwá, the British Government retained in its own possession lands on the banks of the Jumna, yielding about 14 *lákhs* of rupees (£140,000), exclusive of the territory granted to Himmat Bahádur. On the extinction of the Peshwá's independence in 1818, all his sovereign rights in Bundelkhand finally passed to th British. Of the Bundelkhand States, Jálaun, Jhánsi, Jáitpur, and Khad have lapsed to the Government; and Chirgáon (one of the Hash garhi *jágírs*), Purwa, one of the Kálinjar Chaubis (or shares held in t Kálinjar district by representatives of the Chaubi family), Bijerághoga and Tiroha have been confiscated. The States of Sháhgarh and Bán were also confiscated on account of the rebellion of the chiefs in 18 Bánpur was claimed by Sindhiá as forming part of the Chanderi dist conquered by the Gwalior Darbár in 1831. The claim was admitted, but the Bánpur territory has been made over to Sindhiá u arrangements connected with the treaty of 1860. [For further info tion regarding Bundelkhand, see the *Gazetteer of the North-We*

Provinces, vol. i., by E. T. Atkinson, Esq., C.S , B.A. (Allahábád, 1874). Also the *Settlement Reports for Jhánsi, Jálaun, Lálitpur, and Hamírpur Districts*.]

Búndi (*Boondee*).—Native State of Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Haraoti and Tonk Agency, subordinate to the Agent to the Governor-General of India for the States of Rájputána. The State lies between 24° 59′ 50″ and 25° 59′ 30″ N. latitude, and 75° 18′ and 76° 21′ 35″ E. longitude, and is bounded on the north by the States of Jaipur and Tonk, on the east and south by Kotah, and on the west by Udaipur (Oodeypore). Area, 2300 square miles. Length 70 miles, and breadth about 43 miles. Population in 1881, 254,701, or 110·8 per square mile. Revenue, £60,000.

The territory of Búndi may be roughly described as an irregular rhombus, traversed throughout its whole length from south-west to north-east by a double range of hills, constituting the central Búndi range, dividing the country into two almost equal portions. On the south, the river Chambal forms, for very nearly the whole distance, the natural boundary between Búndi and Kotah. For many miles the precipitous scarp on the southern face of this central range forms an almost impassable barrier between the plain country on either side. In the centre of the range, commanding the pass through which runs the only high road from north to south, lies the chief town of the State, Búndi. The highest elevation of the range is 1793 feet, while the height of the capital is 1426 feet above the sea, and above the low-land below it is about 600 feet. Besides the Búndi pass, the only other gaps through this range are one between Jainwás and Búndi, through which the direct road from Tonk passes; and another between Rámgarh and Khátgarh, where the Mej river has cut a channel for itself from the northern to the southern side. The northern plain lies exclusively upon a bed of slate, shale, and clay slate; while the southern is rich in alluvial soil. These peculiarities of surface give a totally opposite character to the river-beds of the two basins.

Beyond the northern boundary of Búndi proper, are several outlying portions of territory belonging to the State. The largest is that of which Garh is the chief town. Large tracts of the State are woodland, consisting chiefly of *sál*, from which a gum exudes which is bartered, weight for weight, against flour, by the Bhíls and others. A fine tree growing near streams is the *mulkarai*, which attains a great height, perfectly straight throughout, with a diameter of from 12 to 15 inches, prettily grained, and well adapted for neat furniture.

Almost the only drainage channel of Búndi is the Mej river, which rises in the Meywár territory at an elevation of about 1700 feet above sea-level. It enters the State near the village of Nagar, and after a course of 92 miles within it, falls into the Chambal. The Mej

tes both the northern and southern basins; its chief tributary in former is the Bájáwás, or Bajáen; in the latter, the Kurál. The th of the Bajáen is about 35 miles. The Kurál, lying for its le length in the rich alluvial soil of south-eastern Búndi, has nerous villages along its banks. There are no natural lakes in indi; the two largest sheets of water, artificially enclosed, are at ugári and Hindoli. The history of the Búndi State is the history, so r as it can be extracted from chronicles and genealogies, of the family f the ruling chief, and of the fortunes of his clan in settling themselves n this part of India. The chiefs belong to the Hárá sept of the great lan of the Chauhán Rájpúts, and the country occupied by them for many centuries is called Háráoti. The first Maháráo Rájá with whom the British Government had any intercourse was Umed Singh, who gave most efficient assistance to Colonel Monson's army during his retreat before Holkar in 1804, bringing down on himself the vengeance of Holkar in consequence.

From that time up to 1817, the Maráthás and Pindárís constantly ravaged the State, exacting tribute and assuming supremacy. The territory of Búndi was so situated as to be of great importance during the war of 1817, in cutting off the retreat of the Pindárís. The Maháráo Rájá of the time, Bithir Singh, early accepted the British alliance, and a treaty was concluded with him on the 10th of February 1818. Although his forces were inconsiderable, he co-operated heartily with the British Government; and he was rewarded by a part of Pátan-Keshorai, Holkar's rights over this territory being commuted into an annual payment of £3000, made by the British Government to him. In 1844, Sindhiá transferred his two-thirds share of Pátan-Keshorai to the British, as part of the territory ceded in trust for the support of the Gwalior Contingent; and an agreement was made by which it was handed over to Búndi on payment of £8000 a year. The Maháráo Rájá proving uncertain during the Mutiny of 1857, friendly intercourse with him was broken off, and no resumed till 1860. The position of Búndi is now that of a Protecte State, acknowledging the supremacy of the British Government. Th chief is absolute ruler in his own territory, pays a tribute of £12,0c to the British Government, and receives a salute of 17 guns. T military force of the State consists of 590 horse, 2282 infantry, field and 70 other guns. The chief bears the title of Maháráo Rájá.

The Census of 1881 gave a total population for Búndi of 254,7 of whom 133,103 were males and 121,598 females, occupy 60,565 houses in 2 towns and 840 villages, or an average of 4·20 pers in each house. By religion, Hindus numbered 242,107; Muh madans, 9477; Jains, 3101; Sikhs, 9; and Christians, 7. Accor to castes and sects, Bráhmans were returned at 23,025; Rájputs, 9

Baniyás, 15,406; Gújars, 30,377; Játs, 2881; Ahírs, 1310; Mínás, 35,982; Bhíls, 6554; Chamárs, 19,278; Dhákurs, 7103; other Hindu castes, 94,018.

The total revenue of Búndi State is estimated at £101,400, of which about £85,000 is derived from the land. The assignments, allotments, and endowments diminish by about £35,000 the land revenue demand of the treasury, leaving the effective income of the State at about £66,400, of which about £6400 comes from customs. For purposes of administration the State is divided into 10 *parganás*, viz. Barodia, Bánsi, Nainwah, Tamaidi, Kárwár, Lakheri, Ganidoli, Keshorai-Pátan, Loecha, and Sillor. These again are sub-divided into 22 *táluks*, each presided over by an officer called a *tálukdár*, who exercises revenue, criminal, and civil jurisdiction within his limits. There are no police or police stations in the State. Sanitary arrangements are not considered in any of the towns or villages. The chief crops are *joár*, maize, barley, wheat, and other grains, pulses of various kinds, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, cotton, rice, indigo, tobacco, opium, and betel-leaf. The cultivated area and cultivable land cannot be given exactly, as it varies greatly each year; it may be approximately put down at 1,000,000 acres. Each village has a *pátel*, a *chaukídár*, and a *patwári*.

The main road through the State is from Deoli Cantonment, through the Maidak Dara pass, towards Kotah and Jháláwar. The road from Tonk to Deoli, through the Ganesho Ghati pass, crosses the north-eastern corner of the State. Over the rest of the country there are mere tracks, which serve the purpose of local traffic. [For further information regarding Búndi State, see the *Rájputána Gazetteer*, vol. i. pp. 203–241 (Calcutta, 1879).]

Búndi.—Chief town of the State of Búndi, in Rájputána, and the residence of the chief. Situated in a gorge in the centre of the range of hills passing through the State. Lat. 25° 27′ N., long. 75° 40′ 37″ E. Population (1881) 20,744, namely, Hindus, 16,351; Muhammadans, 4377; 'others,' 16. Next to Udaipur (Oodeypore), the town of Búndi is the most picturesque in Rájputána. Built upon the steep side of the hill, the palace rising up above the city itself in pinnacled

Búrha.—Revenue Sub-division or *tahsíl* in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Area, 1695 square miles, of which 491 are cultivated, 257 cultivable, and 947 uncultivable; number of villages, 802; occupied houses, 54,500; population (1881) 266,415, namely, 131,257 males and 135,158 females; average density of population, 157 per square mile. Amount of land revenue, including cesses, levied from the landholders, £15,434; amount of rental paid by the cultivators, £28,006, or an average of 1s. 10d. per cultivated acre. The admini-

upwards to the summit of the ridge, where the main fort and the chief's most secluded recesses are situated.

The city is entirely enclosed within walled fortifications, through which ingress and egress are obtained by means of four gateways, viz. the *Mahal* gate on the west, the *Cháogan* gate on the south, the *Mína* gate on the east, and the *Ját Ságar* gate on the north-east. One tolerably regular street, nearly 50 feet in width, runs throughout the whole length of the city from the palace to the Mína gate. The other streets are all narrow and very irregular. One large temple on the fort hill, another in the southern suburb, 12 Jain temples, and about 415 smaller temples and shrines sacred to Vishnu and Mahádeo, are scattered about the town. There are four approaches to the fort, a private one from the palace, one from the Gháti gate near the Sukh Mahal, one from Bírkhandi, and one from Phúl-Bágh. A spur of the fort hill is surmounted by a large and very handsome *chhatri* called the *Súraj*, or Sun Dome, whose cupola rests on 16 pillars, and is about 20 feet in diameter; beyond this, to the northward, lies the Phúl-Bágh, and to the south again of this, about two miles from the city, the Naya-Bágh, both private places of retirement for the Búndi chiefs. Immediately to the west of the city rises an abrupt cliff, very nearly as high as that on which the fort stands, surmounted by a small mosque. To the south of the city there are a few scattered remains of former pleasure gardens, with here and there a monumental cenotaph. One large and very handsome one is dedicated to one of the royal foster-brothers of Ajít Singh's time. Skirting the northern bank of the Ját Ságar also are several pleasure-gardens, terminating at the Ser-Bágh or Mahásatti, the place of cremation for all the Búndi chiefs. There is a charitable dispensary at Búndi, a mint where gold, silver, and copper pieces are coined, an English school, several indigenous schools, and a post-office.

Bunera.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána. Situated about 90 miles from Udaipur town, on the high road from Nímach to Nasirábád, distant 85 miles from the former and 59 from the latter. The Rájá of B[illegible] ... chief feudatories of Udaipur, and his [illegible] ... edifices in the State. The [illegible] ... with a fort on the hill, at

[illegible] ..., 18

[illegible] Rájá.

[illegible] 254,701,

[illegible] occupying

[illegible] of 4·20 persons

[illegible] 107; Muham-

[illegible] ated pagoda in

1341 A.D. by an exiled Pegu prince on a bluff called Kyit-sa-maw, about 3 miles north-east of Tavoy. It is octagonal in shape, 41 feet high, and 117 feet in circumference at the base, and still carries a Talaing-ti.

Burábalang (*'Old Twister'*).—A river of Orissa; rises among the hills of Morbhanj State, in lat. 21° 52′ 45″ N., and long. 86° 30′ 0″ E., and after receiving two tributaries, the Gangáhar and the Sunái, passes through Balasor District and flows into the sea, in lat. 21° 28′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 6′ 0″ E. The river takes its name from its snake-like course. The tide runs up 23 miles. In the upper reaches, the banks of the river are sandy, steep, and cultivated. In the lower part, they are of firm mud, covered to high-water mark with black slime, and bordered by jungle or open grassy plains. The Burábalang is navigable by brigs, sloops, and sea-going steamers as far as BALASOR town, about 16 miles up its winding course. A sandbar across the mouth renders the entrance difficult for shipping. (*See* BALASOR DISTRICT.)

Burá Dharlá (or *Nilkumár*).—Tributary of the DHARLA river, in Rangpur District, Bengal. The name would seem to imply that this was at one period a channel of the Dharlá.

Burá Mantreswar.—A name given to the mouth of the HUGLI river, Bengal.

Burá Tístá.—The name given to several old channels of the TISTA river, Bengal.

Burdu.—Town in Gwalior territory, Central India. Population (1881) 6841.

Burghúr (*Bargúr*). — A range of hills in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; average height, 2500 feet above the sea; highest point, 5000 feet. Lat. 11° 49′ N., long. 77° 36′ E. In length about 30 miles, and crossed by the road from Erode to Collegal (Kálligál). Little is known of these hills, which are very wild and picturesque. Game of all kinds abound.

Burghúr (*Bargúr*).—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Situated in a depression in the hills to which it gives its name. Connected with the railway at Erode by a decent road of about 45 miles in length.

Búrha.—Revenue Sub-division or *tahsíl* in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Area, 1695 square miles, of which 491 are cultivated, 257 cultivable, and 947 uncultivable; number of villages, 802; occupied houses, 54,500; population (1881) 266,415, namely, 131,257 males and 135,158 females; average density of population, 157 per square mile. Amount of land revenue, including cesses, levied from the landholders, £15,434; amount of rental paid by the cultivators, £28,906, or an average of 1s. 10d. per cultivated acre. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner and Assistant

The city is entirely enclosed within walled fortifications, through which ingress and egress are obtained by means of four gateways, viz. the *Mahal* gate on the west, the *Cháogan* gate on the south, the *Mína* gate on the east, and the *Ját Ságar* gate on the north-east. One tolerably regular street, nearly 50 feet in width, runs throughout the whole length of the city from the palace to the Mína gate. The other streets are all narrow and very irregular. One large temple on the fort hill, another in the southern suburb, 12 Jain temples, and about 415 smaller temples and shrines sacred to Vishnu and Mahádeo, are scattered about the town. There are four approaches to the fort, a private one from the palace, one from the Gháti gate near the Sukh Mahal, one from Bírkhandi, and one from Phúl-Bágh. A spur of the fort hill is surmounted by a large and very handsome *chhatri* called the *Súraj*, or Sun Dome, whose cupola rests on 16 pillars, and is about 20 feet in diameter; beyond this, to the northward, lies the Phúl-Bágh, and to the south again of this, about two miles from the city, the Naya-Bágh, both private places of retirement for the Búndi chiefs. Immediately to the west of the city rises an abrupt cliff, very nearly as high as that on which the fort stands, surmounted by a small mosque. To the south of the city there are a few scattered remains of former pleasure gardens, with here and there a monumental cenotaph. One large and very handsome one is dedicated to one of the royal foster-brothers of Ajít Singh's time. Skirting the northern bank of the Ját Ságar also are several pleasure-gardens, terminating at the Ser-Bágh or Mahásatti, the place of cremation for all the Búndi chiefs. There is a charitable dispensary at Búndi, a mint where gold, silver, and copper pieces are coined, an English school, several indigenous schools, and a post-office.

Bunera.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána. Situated about 90 miles from Udaipur town, on the high road from Nímach to Nasírábád, distant 85 miles from the former and 59 from the latter. The Rájá of Bunera is one of the chief feudatories of Udaipur, and his palace is one of the most imposing-looking edifices in the State. The town contains some 2500 houses; is walled, with a fort on the hill, at an elevation of 1903 feet above sea-level.

chief is absolute ruler in his own territory, pays a tribute of £12,000 to the British Government, and receives a salute of 17 guns. The military force of the State consists of 590 horse, 2282 infantry, 18 field and 70 other guns. The chief bears the title of Maháráo Rájá.

The Census of 1881 gave a total population for Búndi of 254,701, of whom 133,103 were males and 121,598 females, occupying 60,565 houses in 2 towns and 840 villages, or an average of 4·20 persons in each house. By religion, Hindus numbered 242,107; Muhammadans, 9477; Jains, 3101; Sikhs, 0; and Ch...

Bún-maw (*Bhun-maw*, or *Bhoon-maw*).—Celebrated pagoda i[n] Talaing Thaung-gún village, Tenasserim, British Burma. Built i[n]

1341 A.D. by an exiled Pegu prince on a bluff called Kyit-sa-maw, about 3 miles north-east of Tavoy. It is octagonal in shape, 41 feet high, and 117 feet in circumference at the base, and still carries a Talaing-ti.

Burábalang (*'Old Twister'*).—A river of Orissa; rises among the hills of Morbhanj State, in lat. 21° 52′ 45″ N., and long. 86° 30′ 0″ E., and after receiving two tributaries, the Gangáhar and the Sunái, passes through Balasor District and flows into the sea, in lat. 21° 28′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 6′ 0″ E. The river takes its name from its snake-like course. The tide runs up 23 miles. In the upper reaches, the banks of the river are sandy, steep, and cultivated. In the lower part, they are of firm mud, covered to high-water mark with black slime, and bordered by jungle or open grassy plains. The Burábalang is navigable by brigs, sloops, and sea-going steamers as far as BALASOR town, about 16 miles up its winding course. A sandbar across the mouth renders the entrance difficult for shipping. (*See* BALASOR DISTRICT.)

Burá Dharlá (or *Nílkumár*).—Tributary of the DHARLA river, in Rangpur District, Bengal. The name would seem to imply that this was at one period a channel of the Dharlá.

Burá Mantreswar.—A name given to the mouth of the HUGLI river, Bengal.

Burá Tístá.—The name given to several old channels of the TISTA river, Bengal.

Burdu.—Town in Gwalior territory, Central India. Population (1881) 6841.

Burghúr (*Bargúr*). — A range of hills in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; average height, 2500 feet above the sea; highest point, 5000 feet. Lat. 11° 49′ N., long. 77° 36′ E. In length about 30 miles, and crossed by the road from Erode to Collegal (Kálligál). Little is known of these hills, which are very wild and picturesque. Game of all kinds abound.

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Commissioner, *tahsíldár*, *munsif*, and 3 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 4 civil and 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*) 4, with 12 outposts; strength of regular police, 120 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 681.

Búrha.—Town and administrative head-quarters of Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 48′ 30″ N., long. 80° 14′ E. Situated on a high ridge of micaceous shale, about 10 miles south of the main range of hills, and 1 mile from the Wáingangá river. Population (1881) 3573, chiefly agricultural; Hindus, 3377; Muhammadans, 616; Christians, 34; aboriginal tribes, 106. On the north and west sides the soil appears well suited for mango cultivation, and large mango groves shelter the town.

Burhána.—*Tahsíl* and town, Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BUDHANA.

Burhánpur.—Revenue Sub-division or *tahsíl* in Nimár District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 4′ 15″ and 21° 37′ 15″ N. lat., and between 75° 59′ 15″ and 76° 50′ E. long. Area, 1138 square miles, of which 168 are under cultivation, 363 cultivable, and 607 uncultivable; number of towns or villages, 130; number of houses, 18,991, of which 16,583 are occupied, and 2408 unoccupied. Total population (1881) 77,123, namely, 40,003 males and 37,120 females; average density, 102 persons per square mile. Amount of Government land revenue, including cesses, levied from the land-holders, £7295; amount of rental paid by the cultivators, £12,268, or an average of 2s. 2⅜d. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contains 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 40.

Burhánpur.—Town in Nimár District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 18′ 33″ N., long. 76° 16′ 26″ E. On the north bank of the river Táptí, about 40 miles south by west from Khandwa, and 2 miles from the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Station of Lálbágh. Population (1881) 30,017, namely, males 15,442, and females 14,575. Hindus numbered 20,991; Kabírpanthís, 62; Satnámís, 30; Muhammadans, 8735; Jains, 195; Jews, 3; aboriginal tribes, 1. Municipal income in 1880–81, £5360, of which £3619 was derived from taxation, at the rate of 2s. 4¾d. per head of the population. It was founded about 1400 A.D. by Nasír Khán, the first independent prince of the Farukhí dynasty of Khándesh, and called by him after the famous Shaikh Burhán-ud-dín of Daulatábád. Though the rival Muhammadan princes of the Deccan repeatedly sacked the place, eleven princes of the Farukhí dynasty held Burhánpur down to the annexation of their kingdom by the Emperor Akbar in 1600. The earlier Farukhís have left no monument except a couple of rude minarets in the citadel, called the Bádsháh Kilá; but the twelfth of the line, Ali Khán, considerably improved the city, and built the handsome Jamá Masjíd, still in excellent preserva

tion. Under Akbar and his successor, Burhánpur was greatly embellished. In the *Ain-i-Akbari* it is described as a 'large city with many gardens, in some of which is found sandal-wood; inhabited by people of all nations, and abounding with handicraftsmen. In the summer the town is covered with dust, and during the rains the streets are full of mud and stone.' Burhánpur formed the seat of government of the Deccan princes of the Empire till 1635, when Aurangábád took its place. After this event, Burhánpur became the capital of the large *súbah* of Khándesh, usually governed by a prince of the royal blood.

The transfer had not occurred at the time when Sir Thomas Roe, Ambassador in 1614 from James I. to the Great Mughal, paid his visit to Prince Parviz, son of Jahángir, the governor, which he thus describes: 'The *cutwall*, an officer of the king so called, met me well attended, with sixteen colours carried before him, and conducted me to the seraglio where I was appointed to lodge. He took his leave at the gate, which made a handsome front of stone; but, when in, I had four chambers allotted to me, like ovens and no bigger, round at the top, made of bricks in the side of a wall, so that I lay in my tent, the *cutwall* making his excuse that it was the best lodging in the town, as I found it was, all the place being only mud cottages, except the prince's house, the *chan's*, and some few others. I was conducted by the *cutwall* to visit the prince, in whose outward court I found about a hundred gentlemen on horseback waiting to salute him on his coming out. He sat high in a gallery that went round, with a canopy over him and a carpet before him. An officer told me as I approached that I must touch the ground with my head bare, which I refused, and went on to a place right under him railed in, with an ascent of three steps, where I made him reverence, and he bowed his body; so I went within, where were all the great men of the town, with their hands before them like slaves. The place was covered overhead with a rich canopy, and under foot all with carpets. It was like a great stage, and the prince sat at the upper end of it. Having no place assigned, I stood right before him; he refusing to admit me to come up the steps, or to allow me a chair. Having received my present, he offered to go into another room, where I should be allowed to sit; but by the way he made himself drunk out of a case of bottles I gave him, and so the visit ended.'

Forty-four years after Sir Thomas Roe's visit, Tavernier described Burhánpur (or, as he wrote it, Brampour), through which he then passed for the second time, as 'a great city, very much ruined, the houses being for the most part thatched with straw.' He adds: 'There is also a great castle in the midst of the city, where the governor lives. The government of this Province is a very considerable command, only

conferred upon the son or uncle of the king. There is a great trade in this city, and as well in Brampour as over all the Province. There is made a prodigious quantity of calicuts, very clear and white, which are transported into Persia, Turkey, and Muscovia, Poland, Arabia, to Grand Cairo, and other places.' The remains of mosques and other buildings show that, at the height of its prosperity under the Mughals, Burhánpur extended over an area of about 5 square miles. A skilfully-constructed system of aqueducts supplied it with abundance of pure water. Eight sets may still be traced, two of which were channels led off from running streams, partly under and partly above ground. The other six consisted of a number of wells, connected by a subterranean gallery, and so arranged as to intercept the water percolating from the neighbouring hills. The supply thus obtained passes by a masonry adit pipe to its destination in the city or suburbs. All these channels, where they run underground, are furnished at short intervals with tall hollow columns of masonry rising to the level of the water at the source of the works, the object of which seems uncertain.

Burhánpur played an important part in the wars of the Empire, particularly in the reign of Aurangzeb. In 1685, that prince had hardly left the city with a large army to subjugate the Deccan when the Maráthás took the opportunity to plunder the place. Thirty-four years later, after repeated battles in the neighbourhood, the demand of the Maráthás for the *chauth*, or one-fourth of the revenue, was formally conceded. In 1720, Asaf Jáh Nizám-ul-Múlk seized the government of the Deccan, and resided chiefly at Burhánpur, where he died in 1748. By this time the population of the city had greatly diminished; and the brick wall with bastions and nine gateways, erected in 1731, enclosed an area of little more than 1¼ square mile. In 1760, after the battle of Udgí, the Nizám ceded Burhánpur to the Peshwá, who, eighteen years later, transferred it to Sindhiá. In 1803, the city was taken by General Wellesley; but it was not until 1860 that, in consequence of a territorial arrangement with Sindhiá, Burhánpur came permanently under British government. In 1849, the town was the scene of a desperate and sanguinary affray between Muhammadans and Hindus on the occasion of a Hindu festival. The chief buildings in Burhánpur are a brick palace built by Akbar, called the *Lál Kilá*, or Red Fort, and the Jamá Masjíd, or great mosque, built by Aurangzeb. The *Lál Kilá*, though much dilapidated, still contains some fine apartments, and other relics of imperial magnificence. It was formerly shut off from the town by a rampart. The muslin, silk, and brocade manufactures of Burhánpur were once very famous, and still exist. But the city has long been declining. English fabrics have displaced the 'clear and white calicuts' mentioned by Tavernier; and now the local industry is confined to the manufacture of fine cotton and silk fabrics, interwo

with the gold-plated silver-thread drawn in the city (the purity of which is tested by Government inspection), and of such coarser cotton goods as Manchester has failed to supplant. But the demand for the finer fabrics of gold and silk, and for the best qualities of cloth, has greatly fallen off ever since the luxurious Muhammadan princes gave place to the rude Maráthás. The removal from Burhánpur of the seat of native government greatly injured the trade of the place; and since the construction of the railway, Burhánpur has ceased to be an entrepôt for the traffic between Málwá, the Upper Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and the Deccan. The city has a post-office, and a travellers' bungalow near the railway station at Lálbágh, a park 2 miles north of the town. An Assistant Commissioner and *tahsíldár* reside at Burhánpur.

Búrhapára.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. In shape a rough equilateral triangle, with its apex to the north; bounded on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by Babhnipáir, and on the west by Sádullápur *parganá*. Originally a portion of the Kalhans *ráj*, for history of which see GONDA DISTRICT. Afterwards conquered by the Pathán, Ali Khán, who established Utráula, and whose descendants still hold a $\frac{2}{5}$ths share of this *parganá*. The remaining $\frac{3}{5}$ths share, which was also held by a Muhammadan of the same family, was confiscated for disloyalty during the Mutiny, and bestowed as a reward for good service upon Bhaya Haratan Singh, who is now the principal *tálukdár*. The centre of the *parganá* is a well-cultivated plain, thickly inhabited, but with no distinctive natural features beyond numerous clumps of fine *mahuá* trees, which give a pleasant park-like appearance to the landscape. To the north-west and south, the cultivated plain is bounded by a belt of forest, abounding in game, but yielding every year to the axe and the plough. Total area, $77\frac{3}{4}$ square miles, or 49,688 acres, of which 30,330 acres are cultivated. Excluding forest, the revenue-yielding tract comprises an area of 30,303 acres, of which 18,877 acres are cultivated. Autumn crops—rice and *kodo;* spring crops—wheat, gram, *alsi*, peas, poppy. Government land revenue demand, under the 30 years' settlement, is gradually progressive from £1756 in 1873-74 to £2695 at the end of the term. Average incidence per acre of assessed land (excluding forest grants)—in 1873-74, 1s. $10\frac{1}{2}$d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. $1\frac{1}{2}$d. per acre of total area; in 1903-04, 2s. $10\frac{1}{2}$d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 9d. per acre of total area. Population (1881), Hindus, 24,565, and Muhammadans, 6631; total, 31,196, viz. 15,954 males and 15,242 females. Number of villages, 128. The most numerous caste among the Hindus is the Bráhman, the Rájputs being few. The aboriginal Bhars, at one time the rulers of an extensive kingdom, who have entirely disappeared in other parts, are still found here. They follow a nomadic system of

forest cultivation, wandering from jungle to jungle. Their abandoned clearings are quickly taken possession of by more careful cultivators, such as Kúrmís and Ahírs. The villages are connected by rough cart tracks, and the rivers crossed at intervals by fords. Principal export—rice; imports—salt and cotton, both raw and manufactured.

Burhee.—Village in Hazáribágh District, Bengal.—*See* BARHI.

Burí Díhing.—River of Assam, which rises among the unexplored mountains to the extreme east of the Province, and flows generally with a westerly course into the Brahmaputra. For some distance it forms the southern frontier of Lakhimpur District, then it crosses that District, and finally forms the boundary between the Districts of Lakhimpur and Sibságar for a few miles above its confluence with the Great River. It is comparatively useless for purposes of navigation. In the rainy season its channel becomes so overgrown with grass, etc., as to be with difficulty penetrated by steamers; while during the rest of the year it dwindles to a very shallow stream, with dangerous rapids. The chief places on its banks are Jaipur and Khowang, both in Lakhimpur District. In the hills above JAIPUR there is much mineral wealth of coal, iron, and petroleum, which would attract European enterprise if only the Burí Dihing were less difficult of navigation.

Burí Gandak.—River of Bengal; rises in the Sumeswar range of hills close to the Harhá Pass, and flows from north-west to south-east through the Districts of Champáran, Muzaffarpur, and Darbhangah, pouring its waters into the Ganges in Monghyr District. At its source it is called the Harhá; in *tappás* Bahás and Madhwál, in Champáran, it becomes the Sikhrená; in *parganás* Simráon and Mihsi, the Burí Gandak or Muzaffarpur river; and, as it approaches Muzaffarpur District, the Chhota Gandak. Except in the upper reach (called the Harhá) it is navigable throughout the rains; but in the dry season sandbanks render navigation by large boats impossible from Monghyr District upwards to Nagarbastí, in Darbhangah District. It is navigable all the year round for boats of 200 *maunds* (7 tons). In the rains, boats of 2000 *maunds* (75 tons) can go as far as Ruserá; boats of 1000 *maunds* (37½ tons) up to Muzaffarpur; and boats of 100 *maunds* (3½ tons) as far as Sigaulí, in the north of Champáran District. The Burí Gandak and the Bághmatí, which flows into it above Ruserá, convey the produce of Darbhangah to Calcutta. Principal marts — DARBHANGAH, MUZAFFARPUR, SOMASTIPUR, RUSERA, and KHARGARIA.

Buríganga ('Old Ganges').—River in Dacca District, Bengal; a branch of the Dhaleswari, about 26 miles in length, leaving that river a short distance below Sábhár village, and rejoining it at Fatullá on the Náráyanganj road. The city of Dacca is situated on the northern bank of this river. The tract between the Buríganga and the Dhaleswari is

known as Paschimdí Island. There is no doubt that the Burígangá was at one time the principal channel of the Ganges, the land to the south being a new formation.

Burirhát.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 29′ N., long. 89° 16′ 30″ E. Chief exports, jute and tobacco.

south-eastern extremities of Sylhet and Cachar, and gradually diminishing till it ends at the rocky promontory of Cape Negrais. Though of considerable height to the north, this chain diminishes in altitude as it reaches Arakan, none of the passes across it, in the centre portion, being more than 4000 feet above the sea; the Ayeng pass into the valley of the Irawadi is considerably less. The coast between the Naaf estuary and Sandoway is a labyrinth of creeks and tidal channels, but studded with fertile islands, the largest of which are Cheduba and Ramri. Farther south, the coast between Sandoway and Cape Negrais is rugged and rocky, offering few or no harbours for ships. Owing to the nearness to the coast of the Arakan Yoma range, there are no large streams flowing into the sea. Of the marine inlets the principal are the Naaf estuary, about 30 miles in length, and 3 miles broad at its mouth, shallowing considerably towards its head; the Mayu river, an arm of the sea running inland more than 50 miles, and from 3 to 4 miles broad at its mouth and the Kuladan or Arakan river, rising in the Lushai hills, near the Blue

Burma, British is the name

For the ANNEXATION of INDEPENDENT BURMA in 1886, and subsequent changes, see Preface to Volume XIV.—W. W. H.

Yoma hills at a point called the 'ever visible peak,' and, running due east, passes the river Irawadi at its fiftieth mile, and the Pegu Yoma range 43 miles farther on; thence, 33 miles farther on, it crosses the Sittaung river, finally losing itself in a wilderness of mountains 13 or 14 miles farther east. The population in 1881 was 3,736,771. The following table shows the details of area and population, as ascertained by the Census of that year:—

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Burí Gandak.—River of Bengal; rises in the Sumeswar range of hills close to the Harhá Pass, and flows from north-west to south-east

Total, . .	10,805	4,780	208,787	1,161,119	69·09
Tenasserim Division. Maulmain Town,[1] .	14	1	9,340	53,107	3793·36
Amherst, . . .	15,189	1,021	50,483	301,086	19·82
Tavoy, . . .	7,150	291	15,464	84,988	11·89
Mergui, . . .	7,810	200	10,159	56,559	7·24
Shwegyin, . . .	5,567	559	31,868	171,144	30·74
Toung-gu, . . .	6,354	836	27,708	128,848	20·28
Salwin Hill Tracts, .	4,646	209	6,387	30,009	6·46
Total, . .	46,730	3,117	151,409	825,741	17·67
Grand total, . .	87,220	15,857	677,362	3,736,771	42·84

[1] Formerly called Ramri.

[2] In April 1878, Henzada District, which was formerly called Myanoung, was divided into two, named Henzada and Tharrawadi; Hanthawadi District has, since the date of the Census, been likewise divided into two, named Hanthawadi and Pegu.

Physical Aspects.—The shape of the Province, as it figures on the map, somewhat resembles a sea-gull travelling towards the east with wide-extended wings. The northern pinion would be Arakan, stretching from the extreme north and the Naaf estuary to Sandoway, and narrowly confined in all its length between the Yoma Mountains and the sea. The body would include the valleys of the Irawadi and Sittaung, reaching inland for nearly 300 miles; while the southern wing would include the lower valley of the Salwín and Tenasserim, com-

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THE CENSUS OF 1881.

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south-eastern extremities of Sylhet and Cachar, and gradually diminishing till it ends at the rocky promontory of Cape Negrais. Though of considerable height to the north, this chain diminishes in altitude as it reaches Arakan, none of the passes across it, in the centre portion, being more than 4000 feet above the sea; the Ayeng pass into the valley of the Irawadi is considerably less. The coast between the Naaf estuary and Sandoway is a labyrinth of creeks and tidal channels, but studded with fertile islands, the largest of which are Cheduba and Ramri. Farther south, the coast between Sandoway and Cape Negrais is rugged and rocky, offering few or no harbours for ships. Owing to the nearness to the coast of the Arakan Yoma range, there are no large streams flowing into the sea. Of the marine inlets the principal are the Naaf estuary, about 30 miles in length, and 3 miles broad at its mouth, shallowing considerably towards its head; the Mayu river, an arm of the sea running inland more than 50 miles, and from 3 to 4 miles broad at its mouth and the Kuladan or Arakan river, rising in the Lushai hills, near the Blue mountain, in lat. 23° N., with Akyab, the chief Divisional town, situated on the right bank close to its mouth. The Kuladan is navigable for 40 miles from its mouth by vessels of 300 or 400 tons burthen. The other rivers in this portion of the province are the Talak, the Ayeng, the Sandoway, and the Gwa, the last named being a good haven for small steamers, or vessels of from 9 to 10 feet draught. The soil throughout is alluvial, mixed in places with sand; the islands are of volcanic formation, and though rocky are fertile.

The Pegu and Irawadi Divisions, the most productive of the whole Province, comprise the whole of the lower portions of the valleys of the Irawadi and Sittaung, the watershed between being the Pegu Yoma range of hills, which terminate in low hills at Rangoon; the Paunglaung range running to the east of the Sittaung valley. In this portion of the Province, the main rivers are the Irawadi, the Hlaing or Rangoon, the Pegu, and the Sittaung. The Irawadi flows from its undiscovered sources about 800 miles before reaching British possessions. Through these, its waters roll on in a south-south-west direction for 240 miles, when the river empties itself by ten mouths into the sea. As it approaches the coast, the Irawadi divides into numerous branches, converting the lower portion of the valley into a network of tidal creeks. The first branch from the main stream is given off from a point about 9 miles above Henzada town, flowing westwards past the town of

ssein, and entering the Bay of Bengal by two main mouths; this anch, usually known as the Bassein river, is navigable by vessels of eavy burthen for a distance of 80 miles, or up to Bassein, a port of ome importance. The Irawadi is navigable for river steamers as far s Bhamo, 600 miles beyond the frontier. The velocity of its waters when the river is full is five miles an hour; the river commences to rise in March, and continues to rise until September (flooding the surrounding lowlands), when it begins to fall. The Hlaing rises close to Prome, and flows in a southerly direction till, passing Rangoon, it is joined by the Pegu and Pú-zwun-daung rivers, coming from the north-east and the east. The two latter streams rise close together in the Yoma range, about 58 miles above the town of Pegu. The Rangoon river also communicates by numerous channels with the principal delta branch of the Irawadi. The Sittaung river rises far north of British territory, and during the dry weather is with difficulty navigable by boats of any draught. Below Shwe-gyin, where it receives the waters of the Shwe-gyin river, it gradually widens; and after a backward curve, it issues through a funnel-shaped basin into the Gulf of Martaban, spreading so rapidly that it is difficult to distinguish where the river ends and the gulf begins. The valleys of the Irawadi and the Sittaung unite towards their mouths to form an extensive plain, stretching from Cape Negrais to the head of the Gulf of Martaban. The plains portion of these two valleys is highly cultivated, and is the richest part of the whole Province. Owing to the spurs thrown out by the Pegu Yoma range, the main valleys of the Irawadi and Sittaung are divided into several smaller ones. A strip of country in the Sittaung valley on the west, about 25 or 30 miles broad, is covered with dense jungle, which stretches down as far south as Shwe-gyin. The coast line from Cape Negrais to the Gulf of Martaban is low and flat.

The Tenasserim Division, or southern portion of the Province, lying along the coast between the parallels of 10° and 18° N. lat., is bounded on the east, at a distance of from 30 to 40 miles from the coast, by a chain of hills, in some places reaching to a height of 5000 feet. The breadth of this chain near Martaban has never been ascertained, but near Tavoy it appears to be about 40 miles wide, whence it gradually narrows to 10 miles near Mergui. The coast-line is very irregular and low for some miles inland, beyond which the surface of the country is mountainous, thinly populated, and much intersected by streams. The soil of the northern portion of Tenasserim is alluvial. Stratified sandstone is the prevailing rock, interspersed with veins of quartz, in which crystals of great beauty are sometimes discovered.

The great river of the Tenasserim Division is the Salwín (Salween). Its source has never been explored, but 600 miles due north of its mouth, between Talifu and Momien, in the Province of Yunan,

flows a rolling torrent, with a shingle bed 140 yards wide. Owing to numerous rapids and rocks, it is only navigable for a few miles from Maulmain, the point at which it enters the sea. Near Maulmain the Salwín is joined by the Gein Mayu and its tributaries. The other rivers of the Tenasserim Division are the Bilin, which rises in the Paung-laung hills, and, flowing south, enters the Gulf of Martaban between the Salwín and the Sittaung; the Zami; the Tavoy, whose mouth affords excellent anchorage for ships; and the Tenasserim, which rises in about 15° N. lat., and flows past the town which gives its name both to the stream and the Division. It enters the sea by two mouths, the northern channel being navigable by boats for about 100 miles.

Three chief ranges of hills traverse the Province of British Burmah, from north to south. Their configuration has been well described by Colonel Yule. To the west is the Arakan Yoma, a cramped and stunted prolongation of the great multiple congeries of mountains which start from the Assam chain. Seven hundred miles from its origin in the Nágá wilds, it sinks into the sea by Cape Negrais; the last bluff is crowned by the Hmawden pagoda, gleaming far to seaward, a Burmese Sunium. The Pegu Yoma, the range which separates the Sittaung from the Irawadi valley, starts from Yeme-thin in Upper Burma, and stretches south with a general direction in the meridian to a parallel a little higher than the head of the delta. Here it branches out into several low terminal spurs, the extremity of one being crowned by the Burman cathedral of Buddhism, the great shrine of Shwe Dagon. The Paung-laung, which divides the Sittaung and the Salwín valleys, is a meridional chain, some of the peaks of which, in the neighbourhood of Toung-gu, reach an altitude of more than 6000 feet. The Tenasserim Hills may be regarded as a prolongation of this range. They form the boundary between the territory of Tenasserim and Siam. The Yoma ranges are composed mainly of brown or grey-slate clay, alternating with beds of sandstone, assuming at times a basaltic character.

The lakes in the Province would be more properly entitled lagunes, and there are few of any importance. The best known is the Kan-daw-gyí, or 'Royal Lake,' near Rangoon. The Tú Lake, in Henzada District, is 9 miles in circumference and 2½ miles across; there are also two lakes in Bassein District, each about 5 miles in circumference. A canal connects the Pegu and Sittaung rivers; and another, the Rangoon and Irawadi rivers.

The country throughout the Delta is flat and uninteresting. Towards Prome the valley of the Irawadi contracts, and the monotony of the plain is diversified by a wooded range of hills, which cling to the western bank nearly all the way to the frontier. The Salwín valley contains occasional harmonies of forest, crag, and mountain stream; but they bear the same relation to the wild sublimity of the Himálayas as the

rossachs to the Alps. On the other hand, the scenery in Tavoy and Iergui, and among the myriad islets which fringe the Tenasserim coast, s almost English in its verdure and repose. A large part of the Province is covered with forests, a small part of them being reserved by the State. The teak plantations lie in the valleys of the Irawadi and the Sittaung.—*See* AMHERST DISTRICT.

History.—The Golden Chersonese, as Ptolemy designated it, has played a quite insignificant *rôle* in the world's history, as compared with the other two great peninsulas of Asia—India and Arabia. Each of the three has been the home and stronghold of a colossal creed. But while Arabia and India are indissolubly connected with the fabric of modern civilisation, the Burman peninsula has remained isolated and unknown, the battle-ground and grave of strange races and kingdoms, who appear and disappear with scarcely an echo from their existence penetrating to the outer world. Our present possessions comprise the sites of at least four ancient kingdoms—Arakan, Thah-tun, Martaban, and Pegu. The meagre annals which remain ascribe to each an Indian origin, and it is from India, no doubt, that their literature and religion have been derived. Indeed, several of the names which we find in the Tables of Ptolemy assigned to the Golden Chersonese (properly in his geography the delta of the Irawadi) are purely Indian, and show that Indian influence already prevailed on the coast. The ancient history of British Burma is to a large extent involved in that of Independent Burma; and to that article the reader is also referred. The researches of Dr. Forchhammer, of Rangoon, are opening up stores of materials for a complete treatment of the archæology and epigraphy of the Province. I regret that the limited scope of this article precludes me from utilizing his valuable labours.

The Arakanese chronicle (*see* AKYAB DISTRICT) relates how the Burman peninsula was first colonized by a prince from Benares, who established his capital at Sandoway. The next irruption was by the Burmese race from the east; but apparently they made little head against the indigenous tribes, till another legendary prince (this time of Gautama's line) arrived as their champion and king. His dynasty was probably superseded by a fresh invasion from Burma, occurring, according to their chronology, in B.C. 825; and the Buddhist religion was introduced during the reign of the twenty-ninth monarch of the n line, A.D. 146. About the year 970 A.D., the country was attacked the Shans, who retired after eighteen years' possession. One of the dynasty then recovered the kingdom, with the help of the Burmese Pagan; and similar aid was given to one of his successors again rebel nearly 100 years later. In the reign of Gaw-laya, who ascen the throne about 1133, the Kings of Bengal, Pegu, Pagan, and S are said to have acknowledged Arakanese supremacy. During

next century and a half the country suffered largely from inroads made by the Shans and the Talaings, till King Mintí, in 1294, repulsed the invaders, and in his turn carried his arms against Pagan and Pegu. This resulted in a long period of comparative immunity, till an act of tyranny, committed by the reigning prince, Min Saw Mún, in 1404, raised a rebellion against him, and cost the kingdom its independence. The dethroned monarch took refuge in Bengal, and was restored some years later by Musalmán aid. Thenceforth the coins of the Arakan kings bore on the reverse their names and titles in corrupt imitations of Persian and Nágarí characters, and the custom was continued long after their connection had been severed with Bengal.

The subsequent history of Burma forms a confused record of intestine strife and foreign war. Despite its mountain barrier, it lay at the mercy of both Burmese and Talaings, and its rulers were generally subject to the one or the other power. The close of the 16th century witnessed the last great struggle between Ava and Pegu; and the King of Arakan availed himself of the weakness of his neighbours in Bengal, to extend his dominion over Chittagong, and northwards as far as the Meghná river. His son aided the Viceroy of Toung-gu in completing the ruin of the Peguan Empire, and endeavoured to retain the Province through the agency of the Portuguese adventurer, Philip de Brito y Nicote, whom he left in charge of Syriam. Nicote, once in power, disclaimed all allegiance, and maintained possession for thirteen years, till subdued and slain by the King of Ava in 1613. During the 17th century Arakan is described by Bernier as the resort of all loose European adventurers. Sebastian Gonzales, a worthy successor to Nicote, established himself on Sandiva (Sandwíp) island at the mouth of the Meghná, and was for years a terror to the country, till crushed with the help of the Dutch. The middle of the 18th century saw the rise of Alaungpaya ('Alompra'); and Arakan, exhausted by intestine dissension, fell an easy prey, in 1784, to Bodaw Paya, the son of that monarch, and was permanently annexed to the Avan dominion. It was this conquest which first brought the Burmese into contact with our Bengal frontier; and it was mainly acts of aggression from Arakan which led to the war of 1824, and the treaty of Yandabú two years later, which added Arakan and Tenasserim to our Indian Empire. For thirty-eight years they were administered under the Bengal Government, whose unwieldy bulk stretched over Assam and across the Arakan and Pegu Yomas, up to the Sittaung and Salwín watershed, with the Irawadi delta, as yet unacquired, intervening between the two ranges. In 1853, Pegu and Martaban also passed under British rule. In 1862, the four Provinces were welded into one, with Sir Arthur Phayre as the first Chief Commissioner.

Tha-htun, Pegu, and Martaban were the chief towns in the territory Ramanna (Ramaniya), called by the Burmese the three places of the alaings. The Múns or Talaings are a distinct family from the Burmese, nd their language is cognate with those of Kambodia and Assam. Tha-tun was probably founded by Indian emigrants from the Coromandel coast several hundred years before the Christian era. The ruins of the city still exist, on a small stream about 10 miles from the sea-shore and 44 miles north-north-west from Martaban. The silting up of the channel has destroyed its position as a port, but it was known in India as a considerable emporium. We possess but scanty records of its history. In the 3rd century before Christ, two missionaries were despatched to Tha-htun (known then as Suvarna-bhúmí or Golden Land, the *Sobana Emporium* of Ptolemy) from the third great Buddhist assembly. Tradition falsely relates that Gautama visited the country thirty-seven years before attaining Nirvána, and was badly treated by the rude inhabitants of the coast. Another event of importance was the introduction of the Buddhist scriptures by Buddhaghosa, from Ceylon, A.D. 403. The kingdom existed till the close of the 11th century, and the names of 59 monarchs are recorded, whose reigns extended over 1683 years. It was then utterly destroyed by Anawrata, the famous Emperor of Pagan; and the ruthless devastation to which the whole Talaing territory was subjected probably accounts for the paucity of surviving chronicles.

The city of Pegu, according to native tradition, was founded by emigrants from Tha-htun in A.D. 573. Martaban was built three years later. The conflict between Bráhman and Buddhist then going on in Southern India no doubt affected the coast of Ramanna, and the new kingdom is mentioned as having successfully repelled an invasion from the adjacent continent. Gradually it came to embrace the whole country between Bassein and Martaban. It is related of the seventeenth ruler, Tissa, that he was converted from heretical doctrines through the courage of a young girl. With him terminated the native dynasty. After Anawrata's conquest, about 1050, Pegu remained subject to Burma for nearly 200 years. Its fortunes began to revive after the capture of Pagan by the forces of Kublai Khán. Magadu, an adventurer who is described as a native of Takaw-wún, near Martaban, raised the standard of revolt, and speedily found himself in possession of Martaban and Pegu. He defeated the Pagan forces sent to subdue him, and recovered all the Talaing country as far as Henzada and Bassein. He was in some degree feudatory to the King of Siam, in whose service he had been, and who had granted him royal insignia. He died in 1296, after a reign of twenty-two years.

In 1321, Tavoy and Tenasserim were added to the kingdom, which led to never-ending strife with Siam. During the reign of Binya- who succeeded in 1348, the country was in great peril from t

Chieng-mai Shans and from internal revolt. The king shifted his capital from Martaban to Pegu; and though he conciliated the Shans, he was unable to crush the rebellion. Finally, in 1385, he was deposed by his son, Binya-nwe, the most famous of this line, who ruled under the name of Razadirit. He reigned for thirty-five years, in perpetual strife with Ava. His chief task was to repel invasion, though in 1404 he led a successful expedition into the very heart of the enemy's country. His kingdom embraced the Tenasserim Provinces and the Irawadi and Sittaung delta nearly as far north as Prome. For more than a century after his death Pegu remained in plenty and quiet, under a succession of able rulers.

The last monarch, Taka-rwut, came to the throne in 1526. His father had quarrelled with the King of Toung-gu, who, now that Ava had fallen to a race of Shan chieftains, was considered the representative of the ancient Burmese monarchy. Tabin Shwe-tí succeeded to this inheritance in 1530, and for four successive years attacked Pegu without avail. At length, in the year 1535, he obtained possession of the capital, and his brother-in-law, Burin-naung, having captured Martaban after a siege of over seven months, the new dynasty was established without further resistance among the Talaings. It is about this period that we begin to have notices of Pegu by Portuguese voyagers. Foreign mercenaries were employed by the new monarch in his subsequent wars both against Ava and Siam; and native historians ascribe his degraded habits and consequent loss of power to his intimacy with western strangers. He reigned for ten years in Pegu, and was succeeded by Burin-naung in 1550, known in Portuguese annals under the name Branginoco. This monarch, after crushing a formidable rebellion among his new subjects, extended his conquests over Prome, Ava, and the Shan States, as far as the Assam frontier. In 1563, he attacked Siam, and subjected it to his sway. On its rebellion six years later, he crushed the insurrection with another huge expedition. He died in 1581, while preparing for an invasion of Arakan. The wealth and magnificence of the Pegu Empire at this time have been described by contemporary travellers. Its swift and utter destruction is without a parallel in Eastern history. The emperor's son, Nanda-burin, succeeded to the throne; and four unsuccessful attempts to reduce Siam crippled the whole resources of the country. Plague, famine, and dissension ensued; the emperor alienated all his feudatories by his wanton cruelty and oppression, and finally his uncle, the King of Toung-gu, united with the King of Arakan and captured the tyrant in his capital, in 1599.

A subsequent invasion from Siam completed the ruin of the country; a country which none of the invaders showed any anxiety to retain in its depopulated and devastated condition. Finally, the

plendid dominion of Tabin Shwe-tí was actually governed for thirteen years by Nicote, the low-born Portuguese adventurer. In 1613, the King of Ava found himself strong enough to subdue the foreigners, and to annex the whole land to his own dominions. Thus, after an interval of more than 400 years, the seat of power was once more fixed in the upper country, and the ancient territory of Ramanna was again administered by Burmese governors. In 1735, the Talaings rose against their conquerors, and not only expelled them from Pegu, but for twenty years maintained their supremacy throughout the country. They were crushed by the irresistible arm of Alaungpaya, who left his new city of Rangoon to testify by its name to the completion of strife. But the Talaings could never be reconciled to Burmese supremacy, and a fresh revolt broke out in 1783, which was repressed with great barbarity by Bodaw Payá. The advent of British troops in the war of 1824 gave them a definite hope of delivery, and they were bitterly disappointed at our abandoning the country. At length the famous proclamation of Lord Dalhousie, on the 20th December 1852, relieved them for ever from their ancient oppressors; and ten years later the Province was organized and a Chief Commissioner appointed. The names of this officer and his successors are as follows:—Sir Arthur P. Phayre (appointed in 1862), Lieut.-General A. Fytche (1867), the Hon. Ashley Eden (1871), A. Rivers Thompson (1875), C. U. Aitchison (1878), C. Bernard (1880), C. H. T. Crossthwaite (officiating 1882), and C. Bernard (1884).

Population.—British Burma may be considered as perhaps the most progressive of our Indian dependencies, and it is interesting to note the growth and progress of the population since the British occupation of the country. Between 1826 and 1855, Arakan increased in population from 100,000 to 366,310, or an average of 50 per cent. in each decade. In Pegu in 1858, or six years after its annexation, which then included the present Irawadi Division, the population numbered only 890,974 persons; this number at the time of the Census of 1881 had increased to 2,323,512; the increase in the 23 year amounting to 161 per cent. In Tenasserim, three years after its annexa tion, the population was estimated at about 70,000; by 1855 it ha risen to 213,692, or 200 per cent. in 26 years. Between 1855 and 188 the population of the whole Province had increased from a million a a quarter to nearly four millions. From 1862 to 1872 the rate of grow was 3·13 per cent. per annum, and from 1862 to 1881, 3·14; calculati from these rates, British Burma may reasonably be expected to cont in 1891 upwards of 5 million (5,090,600) inhabitants.

The last Census of British Burma was taken on the 17th Febru 1881, when the population was returned at 3,736,771 souls. density of the population is only 42·8 to the square mile.

details of the population in the four Divisions of the Province have already been given in the table at the commencement of this article. The males outnumber the females in British Burma by 245,239, the figures obtained by the Census of 1881 being as follows:—Males, 1,991,005; females, 1,745,766, or 87·7 females to every 100 males. Among the Hindus there are only 19 females to 100 males; the Muhammadans intermarry with the natives of the country, who often nominally adopt the religion of their husbands; with them the proportion of women is about half, or 52·5 to every 100 men. The Christians, who include many native Karens, have 81·4 females to every 100 males; the Buddhists, 92·8; and the Nat-worshippers, 95·5. These proportions are for the whole Province. Classified according to age, there were in 1881, under 14 years old—males, 776,890; females, 734,521: above 14 years—males, 1,214,115; females, 1,011,245,—total population in 1881, 3,736,771.

The number of villages, towns, etc. in the Province in 1881 was 15,857; the number of inhabited houses was 677,362. The ordinary Burman house is built mainly of bamboo. The posts are of wood from the neighbouring forests, the walls and floor being of bamboos split and plaited or laid together. The roof is generally of thatch, made either of grass or of the leaves of a palm locally known as *dhani*. The floors are always raised above the ground from six to eight feet, and the sleeping apartment is above. Below, in the front, there is often a platform where visitors are received, and above which the cradle may be seen swinging; while under the floor are placed the agricultural implements, cattle, carts, and looms. Among the Burmese and Talaings, the front of the house is generally parallel with the roof ridge. The Chins, however, enter their dwellings at what is generally the end of the house, having, it is said, received the privilege of building their houses in this form, as a mark of royal gratitude, from a former king of Burma in return for favours shown him by the Chin ladies.

The Karens of the hills also enter their houses by the gable end. Their bamboo structures, *tehs* as they are called, have a long common passage running from one end to the other, on either side of which are ranged the rooms, in which perhaps as many as twenty different families live. The Karen houses are shifted annually. Under the house live the pigs and fowls, and during the year of residence much filth accumulates. Except among the Talaings, a house may face in any direction. Their houses are all turned to the north, presenting a curious and somewhat unsocial appearance. In the better houses the walls and floors are substantially made of plank, the roof being either thatched or constructed of tiles or wooden shingles. One house in four throughout the Province, and monasteries generally, are built of wood. Houses of the better class are most numerous in the Prome, Henzada, and

Toung-gu Districts, though in the other Districts their numbers are also fairly large.

According to the Census there are 4279 monasteries in the Province, or one to every 168 houses, or to every 3·7 villages. The average number of persons per occupied house is 5·5. There are 45·4 houses in each village or town, and each village or town has an average of 236 inhabitants. The number of boats, steamers, and sailing vessels returned by the Census was, for the whole Province, 15,040, and their population numbered 75,315, including 11,202 females. There are 50,831 males and 2746 females, or altogether 53,577 persons, whose occupations fall within the professional class; the domestic class contains 20,203 males and 5674 females; total, 25,877. The commercial class contains 156,377 persons, of whom 39,095 are females. The agricultural class includes 1,186,151 persons, of whom 502,405 are females. There are 169,052 males and 175,230 females, total 344,282 persons, engaged in industrial pursuits. The indefinite and non-productive class comprises 949,891 males and 1,020,616 females, or altogether 1,970,507 persons, most of whom are children. The population is thus distributed over the above six classes:—Professional, 1·4 per cent. of the whole; domestic, ·7 per cent.; commercial, 4·2 per cent.; agricultural, 31·8 per cent.; industrial, 9·2 per cent.; indefinite and non-productive, 52·7 per cent. The number of persons supported by agricultural occupations is 68·56 per cent.

The following are the 20 principal towns:—Rangoon, population (1881) 134,176; Maulmain, 53,107; Prome, 28,813; Bassein, 28,147; Akyab, 33,989; Henzada, 16,724; Tavoy, 13,372; Toung-gu, 17,199; Shwe-daung, 12,373; Mergui, 8633; Thayet-myo, 16,097; Kyangin, 7565; Allanmyo, 5825; Shwe-gyin, 7519; Yandún, 12,673; Myanaung, 5416; Pantanaw, 6174; Paungde, 6727; Pegu, 5891; Laymyathna, 5355. At the time of British annexation there were not three towns in the Province with a population of 10,000, and scarcely five towns with more than 5000. Since then Maulmain has grown from a fishing village into a town with over 50,000 inhabitants; Akyab, then a petty hamlet, now contains nearly 34,000 souls; and the returns for 1881 show 11 towns with a population of more than 10,000, and 9 with a populatior of more than 5000. The definition of a 'town' is a purely arbitrary one the term being applied to all places having 5000 inhabitants and upwards Six out of the 20 Districts include no town. Prome and Henzada Distric have 3 towns each. Of the villages, 8 have over 3000 inhabitants, 19 ov 2000, 142 over 1000, 819 over 500, and 4886 over 200 inhabitants eac

Religion and Ethnography.—Burma may claim at present to be t head-quarters of Southern Buddhism. The religion exists througho the country in its purest and most amiable form. It is singularly f from sect, the only two parties of any importance differing chiefly some minor points of ceremonial. There are no trammels whatever

class or caste or creed. The monastic order is open to the highest and lowest alike; its essential demands being a life of purity, temperance, and truth. There are 6498 *Pungyís* or Buddhist priests in the Province, giving one priest to 500 of the Buddhist inhabitants. The followers of Gautama number more than four-fifths, or 87 per cent. of the whole population; Muhammadans, 4·5; Nat-worshippers, 4·0; while Hindus and Christians constitute each about 2·0 per cent. of the total. Formerly the caste inequalities of Northern India prevailed to some extent among the Burmese. They have long since disappeared, and now the only titles or differences existing are those that belong to the founder or supporter of some religious building, or to the holders of some Government appointment. Elsewhere there is perfect equality, mere wealth not having sufficed hitherto to raise any barrier of distinction. The religions of Hindus, Muhammadans, Buddhists, Nat-worshippers, Christians, Brahmos, Jains, Jews, and Parsís, all have their representatives in British Burma, the numbers belonging to each being as follows:—Buddhists, 3,251,584; Nat-worshippers, 143,581; Hindus, 88,177; Muhammadans, 168,881; Christians, 84,219; Brahmos, 37; Jains, 5; Jews, 204; and Pársís, 83.

The term Nat-worshippers is thus explained in the Census Report:—'"Nats" are spirits supposed to inhabit natural objects, terrestrial and celestial, and to interfere freely in the affairs of man. Some are evil, and their ill-will has to be propitiated by offerings of plantains, cocoa-nuts, fowls, or other such gifts. Some are kind, and their active favour or protection must be gained. The Burmese frequently make offerings to "Nats," and regard the spirit-world with an awe not called for by the creed of Buddha. The belief in "Nats" has remained underlying their thoughts and religion ever since they were converted to Buddhism, a relic of the ancient cult, which is still preserved intact among the wilder Karens, Chins, and other hill races. At present, numbers of Karens and Chins, who have come in contact with the Burmese, though knowing little and practising less the religion of Gautama, call themselves Buddhists, because to do so is a sign of civilization and respectability.' The decrease in the number returned of Nat-worshippers within the decade is due to this tendency to call themselves Buddhists, and not to a real falling off in the races forming this religious class.

The Christian population, which derives its new converts chiefly from among the Karens, was returned as follows:—Europeans, 7866; Eurasians, 4998; natives, 71,355: total, 84,219. Of the Christians, 9980 belong to the Church of England, 16,281 to the Roman Catholic Church, 655 are Presbyterians, 55,874 Baptists, 166 Wesleyans, 346 Lutherans, 131 Armenians, 95 Greeks, and 72 Methodists, the remainder being unspecified. Looking at the distribution of the various sects, the

Church of England has most followers in Rangoon (3339), where the English and Eurasian society is large. The Roman Catholics are strongest in Toung-gu (5005). Baptist Christians are most numerous in Bassein District (18,704), and also abound in Thongwa (5594), Hanthawadi (6268), and Toung-gu (11,510). The work done by the various Missions during the decade has been on a large scale.

The Census Report gives the following account of the marriage customs of the people:—'Among the Burmese, who are all Buddhists, girls are considered the property of the parents, but constraint on their choice of a husband is rarely employed. Child-marriages are practically unknown. Young men make love pretty much where their fancy leads them, first obtaining the consent of the parents, which is generally accorded, unless the young man is of doubtful character. The period of probation during which courtship was carried on, and the suitor carefully watched, was formerly long. It is now much briefer, and early marriage is easier for bachelors than of old. The Burmese mother is a great matchmaker, but she effects her end by peacefully influencing the feelings of the young couple whose union she desires to promote, and not by compulsion. Constraint is sometimes tried, but generally in vain. The young lady in that case either elopes with her favoured swain, or, as occasionally happens, hangs herself. The rule, however, is that the consent of the parent is requisite at a first marriage, and the practice is that the girl's consent is also essential. The main element in the marriage ceremony is the publication of the union.

'By Buddhist law, polygamy is permitted, but is rare. Occasionally, officials or wealthy traders have more than one wife, but polygamy is not looked upon as altogether respectable. Sometimes the elder wife strongly objects to being practically set aside, sometimes she acquiesces quietly in the arrangement, living in another house. Divorce is easily obtained. If the pair are agreed, elders are summoned, and the divorce takes place at once. If either the husband or the wife refuses to be divorced, the question is not whether the divorce can be effected, but how the common and peculiar property is to be divided. If no cause for requiring a separation is shown, the unwilling party takes all the common property. In some cases the applicant for divorce gets the whole. Disputed claims for divorce are often brought before the Civil Court, but as all grades of judges can grant decrees of separation, and indeed cannot refuse them, the only doubtful point being the disposal of the property, the difficulty of divorce is not materially enhanced. While, however, divorce is easily and rapidly obtained, the proportio of divorced persons to married couples is small. Married life in Burm where the women carry on a great part of the trading and shopping, ar amuse themselves after their own fancy, is very happy. Children a numerous, and separation of husband and wife by any cause but dea

may be said to be comparatively rare. Among the Karens, Chins, and other hill tribes, marriage customs differ from those of the Burmese, where the original habits have been preserved; but where these people have come in contact with the ruling race, their customs have been much modified, and little difference is observable. The children of Karens, except in the Karennee Clan, are generally betrothed by their parents, and subsequent non-fulfilment of the contract is expiated by a heavy fine.

'Polygamy is not allowed by the Karen law, but among those who have embraced Buddhism, and mingled with the Burmese, it is occasionally practised. Adultery is the only ground on which divorce is permitted among the Karens. It is regarded as a great offence, but is not altogether rare. Chastity before marriage is not much regarded among any of the hill races. Among the Chins, marriage is a simple contract with the consent of the girl's brother or parents. Large presents are at the same time made by the suitor, and girls are often affianced early in life. Polygamy is common; but the consent of the first wife's brother is required before the second wife can be taken. For certain misbehaviour on the part of the husband, the wife's brother, who, instead of the parents, acts as guardian, may take her away. On the death of the husband, his brother takes the widow as his wife. Divorce is possible, but, if there is no proved offence, the husband is fined, and loses all claim to dowry. These customs, where they differ from those of the Burmese, are rapidly disappearing, and are preserved in their integrity only in the recesses of the hills.'

In regard to education, 26·2 per cent. of the whole population of the Province are either under instruction, or are able to read and write. The education of the females is far behind that of the males. Of the latter, 46·0 per cent. are educated or under instruction; but of the former, only 3·6 per cent. can be so described. Scattered all over the country, but more numerous in some parts than in others, are monasteries, in which the Pungyís or Buddhist monks live together with probationers and novices, separated from the ordinary business of life. The Census Report returns 4279 such monasteries, or 1 to every 3·7 villages, and to every 168 houses. Often there are two such buildings in one village; and except in wild tracts of country, the *Kyaung*, as the monastery is called in Burmese, is seldom distant from any hamlet. One of the chief occupations of the monks is the teaching of the boys of the neighbouring villages, and every Buddhist child passes some period of his life in a *Kyaung*, learning to read and write, and imbibing, to a certain extent, the precepts of Buddhist law. Poverty of a boy's parents, or other causes, may occasionally prevent him from assuming the sacred yellow robe, with the somewhat costly ceremonies; but, although not a regular novice, he may become a *Kyaungtha* or monastery boy for

me, and so get a smattering of learning. In the larger villages, in lition to the monasteries, schools are often found kept by respect- e elders, who desire to gain merit by engaging themselves in the ucation of youth, both boys and girls; the latter are excluded from e monasteries. As compared with other Provinces of India, British urma has a highly-educated population, excepting in the Northern rakan and Salwin Hill tracts, where the hill tribes form the inhabitants, mong whom book-learning is almost unknown.

Ethnically, the population of British Burma varies to a considerable extent. The numbers returned by the Census of 1881 of the chief races inhabiting the country were—Burmese, 2,612,274; Talaings, 154,553; Karens, 518,294; Chins or Khyins, 55,015; Taungthas, 35,554; Kwaymies and Mros, 24,794; Shans, 59,723; Chinese, 12,962; natives of India, 241,449. It is at present generally admitted that the only race living in the Province, of whose advent in it nothing is known either by tradition or history, is the Talaing, as this people is called by the Burmese, or the Mon as they term themselves, and they are undoubtedly the oldest residents,—the aborigines of the country. Several centuries before the Christian era, men of the Dravidian family came from India, no doubt for purposes of trade to Suvarna Bhúmi or Ramaniya, as the tracts about the mouths of the Irawadi, Sittaung, and Salwín were then called. They found a wild race inhabiting the country, with whom they intermarried, and among whom they dwelt. This race were, no doubt, the Mon; but they received the title of Talaings from the name of the ancient country of Telingána, whence the colonists had sailed, and this name was extended to all Mons who in later times became known through the medium of the Dravidian colonists.

The city of Tha-hton, now 8 miles from the sea, was, at the time of its foundation by the colonists, and for some centuries afterwards, on the coast. In the third century before Christ, Buddhist missionaries reached Tha-hton, and two centuries later, the capital of the Talaing kingdom was transferred to Pegu, and the Burmese, who were moving southwards, came into contact with the Buddhist Talaings, and through them acquired their alphabet, their literature, and their religion. The oppression and cruelty endured by the Talaings, as the whole Mon rac was now called, at the hands of their conquerors, the Burmese, explair the rapid disappearance of the Mon language, and the migration in Tenasserim during the early days of British rule. Their language w discouraged after the conquest of Pegu by Alompra in 1757, a furiously proscribed after the first Burmese war, in which the Talair assisted the British arms, and it has ever since been rapidly giving w to Burmese.

In physical characteristics the Talaings differ little from the Burm

Their features are perhaps more regular, the nose is not so flat, and the face is longer. The complexion of the men is often of a darker and less yellow hue than that of the Burman. Sometimes they have been described as fairer than the Burmese. The Dravidians have left no trace of their colonization in the language of the natives, beyond the name Talaing; and the Hindu sculptures found at Tha-hton, Pagat, and elsewhere, are the only permanent record of the existence of an ancient Hindu colony in the neighbourhood, unless we are to ascribe the differences of feature characteristic of the Talaing to an admixture of Dravidian blood. There are in British Burma 154,553 pure Talaings, and 177,939 persons of mingled Burmese and Talaing parentage, or Talaings who speak only Burmese. Of the pure Talaings more than half are in Amherst District. Under the head of the Mramma family, and included in a group which may be called Burmese, come the Arakanese, Burman, Tavoy, Chaungtha, Yaw, and Yabein languages and races.

The Arakanese, also, differ but little in feature from the Burmese; and though their spoken language is so dissimilar from that of the latter as to be almost unintelligible, when written it is the same in almost all respects. The Chaungthas, or 'children of the stream,' are but a part of the Arakanese nation. The Yaws also are a people not differing much from the Burmese either in race or language. They live on a western tributary of the Irawadi, about the latitude of Pagan, and have been described as the pedlars of Upper Burma. The Yabein is almost indistinguishable from the Burmese in feature, and the only practical distinction between the two is that the former are rearers of silkworms, an occupation seldom or never adopted by the pure Burman. The Burmese in their traditions claim for themselves a western origin and a connection with the solar races of India. It is probable that the lower part of the valley of the Ganges was formerly occupied by people speaking languages of the class sometimes called Mramma before the advent of the Aryans; but, as regards the Burmese, it seems more natural to believe, as Sir Arthur Phayre writes, that they passed from the table-lands of Central Asia round the Eastern Himálayas. A kingdom was formed at Tagaung; and thence, it is said, a portion of the people went westwards into Arakan, while the remainder moving southwards, founded fresh kingdoms in Prome and Toung-gu, where the Burmese language is still supposed to be spoken in greater purity than elsewhere in Burma.

The hill tribes of Arakan who live near the Kuladan river and its tributaries, namely, the Sak, Chaw, Kwaymi, Kun, Mro, and Shandu, belong by origin to the same Mramma group as the Burmese, and their language belongs to what is sometimes called the Tibeto-Burman family. Of these hill tribes, the Shandús are the most warlike

functions are to set an example by their pious lives, and to instruct the young. In former times, boys often left the monastic schools without really learning to read and write; and even those who did learn, found it very difficult to keep up knowledge where there were no printed books, and very little literature of any kind. Still the presence of a body of monks, who observed their vows, who cultivated learning, and who were held in high honour, had its effect on the Burmese. The Buddhist monks are everywhere greatly respected, and the abbots and archbishops are held in great veneration, but the religious orders do not exercise, or pretend to, much political influence. The Burmese pay respect (*sheko*) after the ancient manner of their country. According to this custom, the inferior person kneels before the superior with bowed head in the attitude of worship, and no Burman will address a Buddhist monk (*Phungyi*) in a monastery save in this attitude of *sheko* or worship. But to Burmese of the younger generation, who have learnt English, or who have been to Europe or America, the observance of this custom is repugnant. The increasing practice of sitting on chairs marks another change in social usage. Chairs are now used by Burman assessors in the sessions courts, by Burman judges and magistrates in their own courts, by Burman schoolmasters in government schools, by native members of municipal committees, and by the *Sugyís* (aldermen) of the larger towns. All these sit on chairs when transacting business, especially if in the presence of Europeans.

The people of Burma, by reason of their excitability of character, and their disregard of the sanctity of human life, were formerly prone to crimes of violence. Such offences were wont to be judged leniently by the community; and it is said that young Burmans of respectable family would engage in a robbery or a cattle-lifting expedition to prove their manhood. Even now, murders and woundings are occasionally committed without an adequate motive, as the following instances will show. A and B were neighbours in the same village. A was painting his boat; B did not like the smell of the operation, and told A to desist. A went on painting his boat, and when he had finished, in walking towards his house he passed B, who cut him down with a chopper, and killed him. In another case, a wife cooked the daily meal for her husband; he did not like the curry she had made, and in his displeasure cut his wife down, killing her. In neither case did it appear that there had been much previous ill-feeling between the two parties, or that the murdered person had given other offence to the murderer.

Notwithstanding these occasional ebullitions of violence, a Burman crowd is quiet and law-abiding. At the recent Rangoon boat-races crowds of from 10,000 to 30,000 people were assembled for three days and during the whole time only one offence was reported to the polic as having occurred among the vast assemblage. 'Under ordinary ci

cumstances,' wrote the Army Commission of 1879, 'there was no quieter or more peaceful quarter of Her Majesty's Indian Empire than the Province of British Burma. At the same time, there is an element of danger in the unsteady and excitable character of the people, among whom the prestige of the Court of Ava is very great, and on whom disturbances or troubles on the Mandalay border might react in an inconvenient and mischievous fashion.' The majority of the respectable classes are content with British rule, and the people feel that they have prospered since the annexation. High wages, bountiful returns to the farmer, plentiful food, and freedom from oppression, combine to make the life of an ordinary Burman happy and comfortable.

Women in Burma occupy a much freer and happier position than they do in Indian social life. They go about freely; manage the household, buy the daily supplies in the *bázár*, and in every respect take an active part in domestic affairs. Industry and thrift among women are promoted by the custom according to which most girls, even in well-to-do families, work looms, or keep stalls in a *bázár*, till they get married. The girls usually spend the profits of their undertakings on dress or personal adornment, and they are not required to contribute their earnings to the common family purse. The Burmese wives make successful women of business; they conduct not merely retail trades, but also large wholesale concerns, on behalf of their husbands, with a liberal, but at the same time a shrewd, sagacity. The husband sometimes lives in idleness on the fruits of his wife's labour. The ratio of female to male prisoners in Burma jails is less than half even the small proportion of women in Indian prisons.

The articles imported into Burma are luxuries rather than necessaries. During the five years ending 1881, the average surplus of imported over exported treasure has been £1,340,000 a year. The greater part of this silver and gold is converted into ornaments by both Burmans and Karens. It would seem, therefore, that every household of six persons in British Burma must have spent on the average about £12 a year on imported articles and jewellery. These figures indicate a high standard of comfort among Burman families. The average income of a Burman household is much larger than that of a family in Continental India. Wealth is widely distributed. The majority of the people are comfortably off, but there are few rich people. Burmans, as a rule, do not save money. They are open-handed and lavish in their expenditure, giving liberally in charity, and to their monasteries or other pious institutions. They spend freely on dress, on jewels, and on entertainments. The *puays*, or theatrical displays, which are given at the harvest-home, and on other auspicious occasions in every Burman village, cost a good deal of money, and are much enjoyed by the pleasure-loving people.

Outside the seaport towns, there are few Burmans who could raise

£500 at a fortnight's notice; even in Rangoon or Maulmain, there are hardly a score of Burmans who could raise, or whom the banks would trust with, £5000. On the other hand, only a small proportion of the people are in debt. Landholders get into debt sometimes when disease carries off their plough-cattle; and gambling lands many Burmans into difficulties. In a small tract, where special inquiries were made by a settlement officer, it was found that barely 20 per cent. of the cultivators are in debt at all. It is not yet known how far this freedom from debt is characteristic of cultivators throughout the whole Province. Suits for debt are few in comparison with the population. Money-lenders of the ordinary Indian type are almost unknown in Burman villages. In Rangoon and other large towns, a certain number of money-lenders from the Madras coast,—*chettis* as they are locally called,—have established themselves. At one time it was feared that they would get possession of the cultivator's lands, but there is no ground for this anxiety. Out of 6833 cultivators in the neighbourhood of Rangoon town, only 58 mortgaged any part of their holdings in a year; and in only nine of these cases did the lands pass into the hands of a native of India. The rate of interest is high, and varies according to the security given.

In all political, social, or special questions which may arise in Burma, it should be remembered that there are no hereditary chiefs, nobles, or great landholders. Even under native rule, the members of the royal family and the officials constituted the only aristocratic class. In British Burma the officials, the elders in the larger villages or towns, and a few merchants and professional men, are the only persons socially above the level of the prosperous cultivators.

The people are, as a rule, comfortably housed. Outside the large seaport towns there are few masonry dwellings. Wood is plentiful, and most houses are built of timber or bamboos on piles. Their height above the ground varies with the average depth of the inundations; but almost every house is thus raised, and the sleeping-room is usually in the upper storey. In poorer parts of the country, houses are built mainly of bamboos and thatch. In the richer tracts of the delta, and along the great rivers, they are constructed of solid posts and well-seasoned beams, with plank floors, and adorned with wood carvings or quaint pictures. In every such house there is at least one long-armed lounging chair, in which the master of the house takes his ease after the day's work. The houses of the Karens, who are less ready to spend money than Burmans, are usually meaner. In the recesses of the forest, where some of the Karens shift their dwelling-place every two or three years, Karen settlement of ten or twenty families live together under a commo roof; each family having one or more rooms opening on the commo passage which runs between the two rows of rooms. These settlement

or *tehs*, are usually on posts eight or ten feet above the ground, to secure their inmates from wild beasts and noxious vapours.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is the main employment of the people, and it may be assumed that the production and distribution of rice occupies three-fifths of the whole population. Cotton, sesamum, and tobacco are also grown throughout the Province; gardens and orchards are found near every village; but rice covered about six-sevenths of the total area—3,638,845 acres—under cultivation in 1881–82. The enormous foreign demand, and the large profits recently obtained, have greatly increased the cultivation of this cereal. The Burmese are content with a single crop a year, corresponding with the *áman ropa* of Bengal. It is sown in June, transplanted in September, and reaped about December or January. Their soil is lavish in its yield, requires little labour, and no artificial stimulus beyond the ash of the past year's stubble, which is burned down and worked into the land. Year after year, without a rest, the heavy rains and this primitive manure suffice to ensure an abundant harvest. The Irawadi valley and its delta furnish about three-fifths of the whole rice produce of the Province. This tract is annually inundated, and an inch more or less of water frequently determines whether the receding flood will leave a rich harvest-laden plain or a waste of ruined crops. Henzada and Bassein Districts have been partially secured by an extensive series of embankments which fringe the right bank of the Irawadi, and the left bank of the Nga-wún river, for nearly 200 miles. But the system of regulaticn is by no means complete, and the problems which beset the delta of a mighty river have yet to be grappled with.

Much attention has of late been given to the improvement of the implements of husbandry in British Burma; in particular to ploughs, reaping instruments, carts, and sugar mills. The trials of improved reaping machines and ploughs have so far, however, proved disappointing. There is much room for alteration in the carts used by the people, which are very unwieldy, demanding a maximum of draught-power, and possessing a small carrying capacity. The large cart traffic, especially during the season from January to May, renders it important that an improvement in the construction of these vehicles should take place.

Sugar-cane pressing is not carried on extensively in Burma. Hitherto wheat can scarcely be said to have been cultivated, the demand in British Burma being supplied from Upper Burma and India. The Burmese standard measure of one basket (equal to about a bushel) contains, on an average, 60 lbs. The highest price fetched by rice is 3s. per basket; 2s. per basket is considered a very remunerative price by the cultivator. As the wheat imported from Upper Burma is said to yield more flour than the Indian wheat, an endeavour is being made to induce cultivators to grow wheat, which is worth at present (1883) about

5s. per basket in the Rangoon market. The advantages from the successful cultivation of wheat in British Burma would be three-fold. First, large tracts of land, unsuitable for rice cultivation, would be brought under the plough; second, the people would have a dry-weather harvest to fall back upon in case of the partial failure of their rice; third, the agricultural development of the Province would not depend on a single crop, and the land revenue would benefit in the most legitimate way. To encourage wheat cultivation, suitable ploughs and seed of the best descriptions of Indian wheat are being supplied free, and very favourable terms have been allowed to all cultivators who undertake the experiment.

The climate and the soil of Burma are well adapted for the cultivation and manufacture of tobacco, which thrives alike in the alluvial plains of the Kuladan and Irawadi deltas and in the hill regions of the Province. The leaf of the Kuladan and the Kyaukkyi regions enjoys a high reputation. The whole population, men, women, and children, may be said to be inveterate smokers. The women have a natural aptitude for the rolling of cigars, which is one of the chief domestic industries of the Province. The area under tobacco is 13,663 acres, or 0·38 per cent. of the total cultivation. The tobacco grown in Burma is, nevertheless, insufficient for the wants of the people. Estimating a yield of 750 lbs. of tobacco per acre, the total out-turn of the Province is over 10,000,000 lbs. of cured tobacco leaf. In 1881–82, tobacco leaf to the amount of 15,763,186 lbs. was imported from India, chiefly from Madras. Cigars to the extent of 80,516 lbs. were in the same year exported from Burma. The net consumption per Burman in the form of cigars is 7 lbs. The importance, therefore, of tobacco as an article of domestic consumption in Burma is evident; and, irrespective of a foreign demand, there is a large field for private enterprise. Hitherto, the leaf has been cured in the rudest fashion; but it is believed that with improved cultivation and a better system of curing, the tobacco of Burma will be able to take a place in foreign markets. With this view, arrangements have been made for the more scientific cultivation of the plant, and for curing the leaf on the American method, by the establishment of a tobacco farm and factory under Government auspices, to merge ultimately into a private enterprise.

Sugar is both a necessity and a luxury to Burmans, and as much in demand as tobacco. Most of the people are tea drinkers in the Chinese fashion, and they take a piece of caked sugar with each mouthful of tea that they drink. The local consumption of sugar is great, and as the Province does not at present produce anything like a sufficient quantity, large importations are made. The area under sugar-cane in Burma in 1881–82 was only 6251 acres. Like tobacco, it thrives more or less in all parts of the Province, but particularly in

Shwe-gyin and the coast Districts. The total production of crude brown sugar in the Province in 1881–82 was about 2779 tons, of which 434 tons were exported. The total imports by sea and land for the same year amounted to nearly 11,617 tons, giving a total yearly consumption of nearly 14,000 tons, or about 8½ lbs. per head of the population. The use of sugar by the Burmans in their tea, which the people of India do not drink as an article of diet, shows that there is a large local demand waiting to be satisfied, and that this demand would increase with extended cultivation. At present the cultivation of the cane is carried on in the rudest and most primitive fashion; the land in many cases is not even ploughed, artificial irrigation is not thought of, and manure is rarely applied. The cane is planted out from August to October, and ripens in twelve months.

Jute of several kinds grows wild in Burma, but is rarely cultivated. It is found in great profusion on the sites of deserted or dilapidated villages, and on the edges of swamps, and the fibre obtained from even the wild plant is soft, glossy, and strong. The importance of jute to Burma will be obvious when it is seen that the value of bagging imported into the Province in 1881–82 was £325,351. As the raw material of these bags is a plant indigenous to the Province, encouragement has been given to the people to cultivate it, and supplies of the best seeds have been largely distributed.

Cotton is not a crop which the Burmans care to cultivate. Its cultivation demands much labour, and the climate of the greater part of the Province appears to be unsuited for it. In 1881–82, the total area under cotton was 10,689 acres. The average yield of cleaned cotton per acre for the whole Province was, of field grown, 160 lbs.; of hill grown (*taungya*), 40 lbs.

In a Province like Burma, where the peasants are averse to undertaking any cultivation except that which, with the least outlay of labour and money, yields the highest return, and where the people are, as a rule, fond of ease, what is likely to be really useful to them, and to convince them that much more can be made out of their lands even on their own methods, is a series of experimental farms conducted under the eyes of the peasantry. With this view several have been started in various parts of the Province, in which the principal cereals and other important crops are being cultivated according to the Burmese methods, but with care and industry. It is hoped that the people will, when they perceive the harvests yielding a good return in money, gradually take to improved methods, and interest themselves in the raising of new kinds of produce. The stimulus of an unfailing market for raw produce has borne very remarkable fruit. When the people saw steam rice mills springing up at the great ports, where they could dispose of their unhusked rice at good prices, they found it to their advantage to

extend the cultivation as fast as they could get land, and cattle to work it. In 1867–68, the area under rice was only 1,682,110 acres; there were then 7 rice mills in the whole Province. In 1881–82, the number of mills had risen to 49, and the area under rice cultivation to 3,181,229 acres, or by 89 per cent. in 14 years. The total cultivated area assessed to revenue in 1881–82 was 3,498,688 acres, and the total revenue assessed was £656,162.

Taungya or *júm* cultivation prevails chiefly on the Northern Arakan Hills. This system consists in clearing a patch of forest land, setting fire to the fallen jungle, and then sowing in the ashes a miscellaneous crop of cotton, rice, and pumpkins or other vegetables, all of which ripen in about five months. The assessment on *júm* cultivation is generally made by means of a poll-tax on the husbandman, or on his house, irrespective of the amount of his clearing. The area thus cultivated in 1881–82 was estimated at 47,322 acres, as compared with 109,288 acres in 1875; but the returns can hardly be relied on, owing to the nomadic habit of the cultivators. As population increases, a tendency from extensive to intensive husbandry discloses itself, and *júm* cultivation is being pushed back more and more into the hills and sparsely-populated tracts, before the advance of plough and tillage.

Land Tenures.—The system of land tenure in Burma is simple. Government is the sole proprietor of the soil, and deals directly with the cultivator, from whom it receives a rent varying from 1s. to 10s. an acre. The average assessment is about 3s. 3d. There are no *zamíndárs* or large landed proprietors, and no Government or wards' estates. A new-comer is allowed total exemption from all rent and taxes for a certain period, to enable him to clear his grant. Government then levies a rent 20 per cent. lower than in other Provinces of India; and requires only 2 *annás* (3d.) an acre for land which may be left fallow. Besides this, a generous allowance is made to the settler for failure in crops or cattle, and he can at any time avail himself of five or ten years' settlement on exceedingly liberal terms. About one-fifth of the area tilled is held under such leases; the other four-fifths of the holdings being annually re-measured and assessed by revenue officials, styled *thúgyís*, who are paid by a commission on their collections. The holdings average about 8 acres in extent.

The basis of the land revenue settlement has been:—20 per cent. of the gross produce, after many deductions, payable to Government in money at the rates of the price of grain in the circle within which the land is situated. Practically a lower percentage is taken. In the Districts of Rangoon, Bassein, and Henzada, and in the whole of the Tenasserim Division, each male engaged in *taungya* cultivation pays a tax of two shillings per annum; while in the Districts of Toung-gu and Prome, and generally in the Arakan Division, each family is assessed

this rate. Among the hill tribes of Northern Arakan, each house pays four shillings per annum, which includes also capitation tax.

Survey, demarcation, and settlement are in the hands of a special department. The area dealt with by this department since its operations commenced in the Province, up to 1881–82, amounted to 5382 square miles, equal to 3,444,480 acres surveyed at a cost of £119,178, or 8¼d. per acre. Of this total surveyed area, 3008 square miles, or 1,925,808 acres, have been brought under settlement at a total cost of £23,854, or 3d. per acre. Total cost of survey and settlement, 11¼d. per acre. The total revenue brought under settlement up to the end of 1881–82 was £162,173, showing a nett increase of nearly £15,000, or 15 per cent., in the land revenue. The tracts under settlement operations have been, for the present, the Districts of Hanthawadi, Bassein, and Tharrawadi. The total number of tenant occupiers in the portions settled is 4031, holding 51,456 acres, at an average rent of 8s. per acre.

Wages and Prices.—The local supply of labour is inadequate to the demands upon it, and considerable additions are made annually to the population during the harvest and rice shipping season by immigration from Upper Burma and from India. Few of the immigrants, however, bring their wives and children with them, and few settle permanently. To Pegu and Tenasserim, immigrants come by sea from the Madras coast, and from Calcutta in steamers. They are brought over by native captains of labour, who pay the fare of the coolies, receive them, and provide them with work. Into Arakan, immigrants come by land, chiefly from Chittagong. The Census of 1881 showed that in British Burma the number of persons of Indian birth was about 185,000, in addition to 316,000 persons born in the kingdom of Ava. Shans from the Burmese and Chinese Shan States, and other labourers from Upper Burma, come down by whole villages at a time during the harvest season, and return at its close. Some who settle as cultivators manage to get the women of their families brought after them, notwithstanding the stringent rules against emigration in the kingdom of Ava. This stream of yearly immigration into the Province is steadily increasing, and is now more than double what it was five years ago. The high rate of wages is still maintained. All the immigrants find employment, and the demand for outside labour is as great as ever.

Unskilled labour is worth from 1s. to 1s. 6d. a day, and shipping coolies during the season earn up to 3s. It has been calculated that it takes as much money to construct 1 mile of road, or 100 cubic feet of masonry, in British Burma as it does to make 2 miles, or 800 cubic feet, in India. The large exportation of the food staple, and increased demands, have caused prices to rise very rapidly of late years. Previous to the annexation of the Province, the usual cost of paddy was Rs. 20 or

Rs. 25 (£2 or £2, 10s.) per 100 bushels; in 1878 (owing to the demand for grain during the famine in Southern India), it rose to £13 per 100 bushels, the highest price realized; after that year it fell steadily, and in 1882 the price was £5, 2s. per 100 bushels. The average prices of produce ruling in the Province at the end of 1881–82, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were—for rice, 6s.; for uncleaned cotton, 20s.; for sugar, 17s.; for tobacco, 30s. 6d.; for oil-seeds, 10s. 9½d. Uncleaned cotton at the time of the annexation was obtainable at £1 per 100 *viss* (365 lbs.); it now fetches more than four times that sum. The average price of a bullock has increased from Rs. 10 (£1) to Rs. 60 (£6). Bamboos which used to be sold at Rs. 2½ (5s.) per 1000, now fetch about £2, or Rs. 20.

Means of Communication.—Next to labour, the most urgent want of the country is land communication. There are thousands of villages which are shut off from trade for at least eight months of the year by reason of the lack of roads. The needs of the Delta and the river tracts are in some measure supplied by the steamers and boats which ply on the rivers and tidal creeks, while the railways supply cheap means of transit to the plains which they traverse. But for want of a network of roads connecting the remoter towns and villages with the main lines of communication, the extension of cultivation and the prosperity of the country are retarded. During only four months of the year can the surplus produce of the country immediately adjoining the river tracts or plains be conveyed to the river or railway in carts; during the remainder of the year even this portion is quite shut off from the means of communication. No fewer than 8 of the 18 Districts of the Province are destitute of roads; they do not possess a single mile of metalled or bridged road outside the headquarter town. Road-making in Burma is slow work, owing to the want of labour and metal. No road-metal is available in many Districts except broken brick; and in a country with a heavy rainfall, a road of this material requires constant care and repairs after it is made, particularly if the traffic is at all heavy. There are only 1310 miles of made road in the whole Province, portions of which are impassable during the rains. There is abundance of waterway throughout the Irawadi delta all the year round. The Sittaung valley, however, has no such advantages.

There are now (1884) two lines of railway in the Province. One, following the valley of the Irawadi, called the 'Irawadi Valley State Railway,' 163 miles in length, connects the capital Rangoon with Prome. This line was opened in 1877, and the results have been most satisfactory. The other line, called the 'Rangoon and Sittaung Valley State Railway,' also 163 miles in length, connects the capital with the military station of Toung-gu. This line, now approaching completion,

will, it is expected, attract the whole of the trade with Karengní and the Shan States, and not only open up fertile districts as yet without means of communication, but also secure the frontier of Toung-gu, which in its present isolation is exposed to some peril. A navigable canal, about 40 miles in length, with locks, between the Sittaung and Irawadi rivers, has been, after some years in construction, now completed; it is intended to avoid the dangers of the bore in the Sittaung estuary. It carried 80,000 tons of boat traffic in 1881, besides timber rafts, and its completion has caused great extensions of cultivation in the tract through which it passes—a tract previously water-logged and without means of communication. A similar canal has now been undertaken from Rangoon, through the rich township of Twantay, into Thongwa (Thun-khwa) District, between the Rangoon and Irawadi rivers. Proposals for the clearing of several old channels, the real highways of Burmese traffic, in order to make them again navigable, are also receiving attention. During 1881, two extra services of coasting steamers were, by the help of Government subsidies, established for the purpose of affording weekly communication, inwards and outwards, with the Districts of Kyauk-hpyu, Tavoy, and Mergui, and fortnightly with Sandoway.

Commerce, Manufactures, etc.—For centuries the seaboard of Burma has been visited by ships from many countries. Bassein, under its classic name of Kusimanagara, corrupted by the Talaings into Kutheim or Kusein, and by the Europeans who visited it into Cosmin, was a flourishing port in the 12th century. At a later period we find Arabs and other Asiatic races in constant communication with Arakan, Pegu, and Tenasserim. Towards the beginning of the second half of the 14th century, Muhammadan merchants carried on a brisk trade between Pegu and the countries east and west. The Arabs brought to Burma goods of European manufacture as well as the produce of their own country; and large sea-going boats from Mrohaung, the capital of the Arakan kingdom, visited the ports of Bengal.

The principal exports from Bassein and Pegu were gold, silver, rubies, sapphires (all jewels were excessively cheap, or as Frederick has it, sold 'at most vile and base prices'), long-pepper, lead, tin, lac, rice, and some sugar. The imports from Arabia and the Persian Gulf to Syriam (an ancient emporium of Burma, 3 miles from the mouth of the Pegu river), were woollen cloths, scarlet velvets, and opium; and from Madras and Bengal, 'painted cloth of Masulipatam and white cloth of Bengala, which is spent there (Pegu) in great quantity.' The trade of Malacca and places to the eastward was with Martaban, then a flourishing port of Tenasserim; the imports being porcelain from China, camphor from Borneo, and pepper from Achin. From Arakan, rice was the principal export, the imports being muslins, woollens, cutlery, piece-

goods, and glass and crockery ware. Tenasserim exported tin largely. The continual wars between the Burmese and Siamese ruined the trade of the south; and on the conquest of Arakan by the former in 1784, commerce was so hampered by vexatious restrictions and prohibitions that it almost ceased.

After the cession of the country to the British, Akyab rapidly rose in importance, and the inland trade with Upper Burma across the mountains increased to such an extent that it competed seriously with the sea-borne trade at Bassein and Rangoon. Owing to the facilities for inland communication by the creeks, Akyab is and will remain the real port of Arakan. The trade of Tenasserim also, when the British came into possession, was at a very low ebb. The country, however, had extensive teak forests, which led to the foundation of the town of Maulmain, where ship-building could be extensively carried on. The favourable situation of this town at the mouth of the Salwín, where it is joined by two other tributaries, all three rivers tapping countries exceedingly rich in teak, has enormously developed the timber trade. In 1836–37, the exports from Maulmain consisted almost entirely of teak timber, which realized a revenue of £2080; five years later it was £5418. In 1851–52 it had risen to £7163. In 1860–61, the total value of the imports at Maulmain was £530,234, and of the exports £446,371, the total duty realized being £10,048, and the aggregate tonnage of vessels calling at and leaving the port in the same year being 155,113 tons. Ship-building, which during the period of its greatest activity, from 1837 to 1858, was principally for European owners, has since almost entirely ceased, in consequence of the rise in price of materials and labour. In 1840, the price of teak was Rs. 25 (£2, 10s.) a ton, in 1881–82 it was Rs. 63 (£6, 6s.); unskilled labour rose from 14s. to 30s. a month, and skilled labour from 30s. to £5.

The commercial prosperity of British Burma has more than kept pace with its rapidly increasing population. Since 1855, the external trade of the Province has risen from £5,000,000 to £21,000,000 in 1881–82, as the following figures show. Value of sea-borne trade in 1881–82, imports £8,077,000, exports £9,288,000; value of land-frontier trade, imports £2,018,000, exports £1,765,000; total value, imports £10,095,000, exports £11,053,000, aggregating a total of £21,148,000. Rangoon absorbs about 90 per cent. of the whole of the foreign import trade, and about 60 per cent. of the foreign export trade. The trade, especially the rice traffic to Europe, is employing steamers more largely every year. The Indian craft and junks, which used to do much of the trade along the coast, to India on the one side and to the Straits Settlements on the other, are decreasing before the competition of the coasting steamers, of which there are now three or four lines, besides the mail steamers of the British India Company. The

service done for the Province by these steamers is very great. The sea-borne trade at the eight different ports of the Province during 1881–82 was carried on in 918 steamers and 850 sailing vessels, 'entered' and 'cleared,' with a registered tonnage of 1,492,584 tons.

The chief items of the export trade are rice, timber, cutch (a resinous gum used for dyeing and other purposes in Europe and America), hides, petroleum, and precious stones. It is the rice produce and the rice exports that have made and that maintain the prosperity of British Burma. In 1880–81, the Province sent away no fewer than 892,262 tons of rice, of which Upper Burmah took 6924 tons. The declared values of three items of export alone for the same year, were—rice, £5,655,000; teak timber, £1,020,000; and cutch, £468,000. In 1881–82, the value of the rice exported was £5,379,556. The chief imports are piece-goods, silk, cotton, and wool, cotton twist, gunny-bags, betel-nuts, liquors, tobacco, iron, mill machinery, and sugar. Among the imports the value of cotton yarn, cotton goods, silk and woollen goods, and apparel, in 1880–81 reached £3,330,000.

The most important industry in British Burma is carried on by the rice-mills, which free the rice from the husk and prepare it for the European, American, and Chinese markets. It is the enterprise and the skill of the mill-owners that have increased the rice trade of Burma. At the present time, Burmese rice is sent direct from the mills to England, Italy, Austria, Germany, Holland, France, Brazil, the Straits, China, and the Mauritius. It seems to be making its way into new fields. A recent report mentioned that Burmese rice had reached Iceland; and a merchant just returned from Europe reported that in Northern Germany the Burmese grain is coming into use as an article of food among the poorer classes. The rice-mills ensure a ready market and a full price for all the surplus paddy (rice in husk) which any farmer can send by boat or rail to a rice port, and they provide cargoes for the steamers and sailing vessels which flock to Burmese ports. There are now 49 rice-mills at work in Burma, of which 28 are at Rangoon, and seven at each of the other rice ports, namely, Maulmain, Akyab, and Bassein. Twenty of the Rangoon mills can prepare white rice fit for European consumption; the remainder prepare cargo rice, which has again to be passed through cleaning mills in London, Liverpool, Hamburgh, or Bremen. White rice cannot stand the long voyage round the Cape, but it bears the shorter journey through the Suez Canal to Europe well. There are about 20 steam timber saw-mills at Rangoon, Maulmain, Tavoy, and Shwe-gyin. Of the total number of mills in the country, 41 rice-mills and 10 timber saw-mills are owned by European merchants, 3 rice-mills and 4 saw-mills by Chinese, two of each by Burmese, one rice-mill by Pársís, one saw-mill by the King of Ava, and two of each by natives of India.

Next to occupations connected with the preparation of rice for the market, the most important industry is weaving. At Prome, Shwe-daung, Yandún, and other towns in the Irawadi valley, there used to be a large production of silk *patsoes*, *tameins*, and *gaungbaungs* (garment pieces worn by Burmese men and women). But the power-looms of Europe are now sending large supplies of these fabrics woven on Burmese models. These undersell the local fabrics, and the latter are now produced in smaller quantity. The native cloths are 30 per cent. dearer, but stronger and more durable, both in texture and in colour, than the imported fabrics. Almost every Burmese man and woman has one or more of these silk garment pieces to be worn on festivals, or oftener if the owner can afford it. Efforts are being made to popularize improved forms of looms and shuttles brought from England in 1880, and their use is being taught in several Karen schools.

The manufacture of earthenware is carried on in most parts of the Province, and considerable artistic success has been attained in the potteries at Shwe-gyin and Bassein. Drinking vessels, boxes and other articles of lacquer ware are largely made everywhere, and every Burmese monk has two or three large lacquer vessels for collecting daily contributions of food from his disciples. The groundwork of these articles consists of very fine bamboo wickerwork, on which are overlaid coats of lacquer, the chief ingredient in which is the oil or resin from the *thitsi* tree. Little or no real lac is used in the Burmese ware. The Burmese exhibit proficiency in the art of wood-carving; their temples, monasteries, and sometimes their dwelling-houses are ornamented with a profusion of quaint and delicate designs, and skilful master-carvers in wood are much esteemed. Formerly the carvers devoted their labours almost entirely to the ornamentation of religious edifices, but of late years they have shown themselves ready to comply with the demand which has sprung up among Europeans for specimens of their handiwork.

Boat-building, cart-making, mat-weaving, torch-making, the manu facture of paper, umbrella-making, ivory-carving, and stone-cutting ar also branches of industry among the Burmese. Ironsmiths are found i almost every village, but their skill is limited. In iron the manufactu of *tees* for pagodas, and in brass the casting of bells and of imag of Gautama, may be mentioned. Quaint, beautiful gold and silver wo is everywhere made. *Repoussé* silver bowls are to be found in eve monastery and in every respectable Burman's house. Enamelling silver, or the manufacture of what is known as viello work, is a practised in Shwe-gyin and Thayet-myo Districts. As a rule, Burm of all classes invest their savings in gold and silver ornaments. refining and preparation of cutch for the home market in Prome Thayet-myo Districts afford employment to a large number of peo

The manufacture of paper from bamboos is also to be tried, and if successful an important new industry will soon grow up.

The condiment known as *nga-pi* (from *nga*, 'fish,' and *pi*, 'to be pressed'), made from fish, is universally used by Burmans and Talaings throughout British and Upper Burma. It is of three kinds—*nga-pi-gaung*, or whole fish salted; *taungtha nga-pi*, 'fish paste,' and *seinsa nga-pi*, or 'raw eaten,' because it is eaten uncooked; in Arakan this last is known as *nga-pi nyin*, and in Tavoy and Mergui as *gwe*; by Europeans it is called *balachong*, the name given to it in the Straits of Malacca. Salt is manufactured all round the coast, but the importation of cheap salt from England has seriously affected the manufacture. The western provinces of China, and the Kakhyen and Shan States between China and Ava, are to a considerable extent dependent on British Burma for salt, and large quantities are sent to Bhamo. In 1881–82, 489,776 *maunds* of salt were sold at Rangoon for Upper Burma, of which 332,216 *maunds*, valued at £24,921, were exported to that region.

The land frontier trade is conducted mainly by the Irawadi route, and nearly all the traffic is carried by the steamers of the Irawadi flotilla. This Company began business in 1868 by taking over two or three old Government steamers and flats. They now possess 30 steamers and 44 flats, and send two or more steamers with flats to Mandalay twice a week, and a steamer once a fortnight, or oftener if need be, to Bhamo, which place is within 4 days' journey of the south-west frontier of China. Their steamers and flats also ply on the creeks and rivers of the Pegu delta. The Company receives subsidies aggregating in all £12,000 a year. The service they do to the Province is immense, as they carry yearly between British and Independent Burma goods to the value of about $3\frac{1}{4}$ millions sterling, besides about 50,000 passengers—over and above the large traffic they do in purely British waters. Although they have practically a monopoly of the Irawadi traffic, their charges are not excessive; for instance, they carry salt cargoes from Rangoon to Bhamo, a distance of over 750 miles up stream, for Rs. 11 (£1, 2s.) per ton. Three or four steamers belonging to the King of Burma also ply on the river, but get little freight, although the trade to Mandalay is entirely in the hands of Chinese and Musalmán merchants. The only other steamers plying on the rivers in Burma are small craft belonging to Chinese and Burmese merchants, which run from Rangoon rather irregularly to Yandún and Pegu. Negotiations have been completed with a Maulmain firm to run small steamers for a subsidy on the Salwín and Damdami rivers to important trading towns outside Maulmain.

The value of the inland trade of British Burma, by 3 river and 17 land routes, aggregated in 1881–82, £3,783,375; the imports amounting to

£2,018,529, and the exports to £1,764,846. In 1880–81, the aggregate value of the imports and exports was £4,182,525. A considerable quantity of teak timber from Upper Burma and the semi-independent States between Siam and Ava enters British territory between the Sittaung and Salwín rivers. Very little other merchandise enters or leaves British Burma by either of these rivers, which are hardly navigable beyond the frontier. The trade on the Salwín consists entirely of timber floated down from the forests bordering that river and the Thoungyin, which joins it on the British frontier. A certain proportion of the inland trade is carried on pack-bullocks, on elephants, and on men's backs, across the borders of Thayet-myo, Kyauk-hpyu, Tavoy, Amherst, and Toung-gu Districts, and by a few of these Districts cattle and ponies are imported. Three-fourths of the whole inland trade is registered on the Irawadi route. The Mandalay trade, as the traffic with and through Upper Burma is called, is entirely in the hands of Chinese, Muhammadan, and Burmese merchants. With the exception of one English firm, who have taken the cutch monopoly, and two or three timber contractors, Europeans have no direct dealings with Mandalay, though they sell to and buy from the Chinese and native firms which deal with that place. The trade across the land frontier of British Burma is, according to the latest published reports, nearly one-half of the whole traffic that crosses the land frontier of continental India, from Karáchí on the west to Chittagong on the east. But the Mandalay trade would expand indefinitely, if only a safe road existed between Bhamo and the confines of Western China. The flotilla steamers reach Bhamo from Rangoon in 15 or 20 days. For the millions of Chinese in Yunan and Southern Szechuen, the Irawadi and Bhamo route would perhaps be the best trade route with Europe.

Mr. Colquhoun, an engineer officer of Burma, made in 1881 a most enterprising journey from Canton through the Chinese provinces of Kwantung, Kwangsi, and Southern Yunan to Esmau on the Cambodia river. Thence he had intended to make his way through the Shan States to Zimmeh, from which there is a good route to Maulmain. But at Esmau he was compelled to return northwards up the valley of the Cambodia river for about 220 miles to Talifu in Western Yunan; whence he came to Rangoon by way of Bhamo and Mandalay. The Cambodia valley, north of Esmau, was found to be rich and studded with populous cities, and it had not been previously visited by Europeans. Esmau is about 420 miles from the highest navigable point on the Salwín river, and about 480 miles from Maulmain. For the greater part of this distance the route passes over hilly, sparsely-peopled country, where a wheeled vehicle has hardly been seen; and the peaks between Esmau and British territory rarely reach 6000 feet in height, while the passes probably range from 2000 to 4000 feet. The

rival route by the Irawadi valley to Talifu has the advantage of steamer carriage (1800 miles) to Bhamo, which is about 220 miles from Talifu; to this place the route from Bhamo is mountainous, and two passes, one of which is 3700 feet high, have to be crossed. If Talifu is to be the object of the two trade routes, the Zimmeh route is shorter by 320 miles than the route by the Irawadi valley, and perhaps safer, as the road beyond Bhamo is infested by Kakhyen tribes who levy blackmail on caravans and often close the road entirely. Between Esmau and the British frontier near Maulmain lie a number of petty Shan States, which are supposed to owe allegiance, some to China, some to Bankok, and some to Ava.

Mines and Quarries.—The geological structure of Burma comprises three sections—western, middle, and eastern, nearly corresponding to the divisions of Arakan, Pegu, and Tenasserim. The rocks of Arakan belong to the secondary series, Pegu is tertiary, while Tenasserim is primary. The economic products of the western Division are mineral oil (petroleum), limestone, and coal. The middle or Pegu Division produces laterite. Iron-ore and manganese have also been found in small quantities. The eastern division has not been much explored; coal, limestone, tin, lead, gold, antimony, and graphite have been found in various quantities at different places. Mineral oil or petroleum is found principally in Kyauk-hpyu, the Boronga islands, and Thayet-myo. It differs from the oil found in Upper Burma in containing little solid paraffin, and in being more volatile. It is also found at various places on the eastern slopes of the Arakan Hills. The oil seems to be drawn from a stratum of carbonaceous shale and coal which crops up in the spurs of the Arakan Yoma Hills. Prospecting for oil has been actively carried on by the Boronga Oil-refining Company on the Boronga islands off Akyab, and on the Ramri island of Kyauk-hpyu District. A licence has been granted to the Company; and their operations promise to be on the whole successful, as a large sum of money has been laid out on plant and machinery, and experts have been brought from Europe and America to work the enterprise. The yield of oil from the wells on the Borongas is not so plentiful as was expected, but the yield in the Mimbyin field in Ramri is increasing.

Coal is found in the Arakan Yoma, both in British Burma and beyond the frontier. The deposits in British Burma are generally thin and broken; but a seam 6 feet thick, with another 2 feet thick underlying it, occurs on a tributary of the Okepo river, 35 miles from Henzada. The area of this tract has not yet been ascertained. At Insein, at a depth of 200 feet, a thin seam, about 9 inches thick, of lignite has been found. The Myawoung localities have also been explored, with encouraging results, the coal specimens proving of fair quality. Operations to ascertain the coal-bearing strata of Henzada

District are in progress. *Limestone* occurs in isolated patches along the Arakan Hills from Thayet-myo to Bassein, and in Tenasserim it forms a range of hills. The best lime is brought from a place called Kyauktalone (monolith) near Maulmain. *Tin* is found at Maliwún, where it is picked from the beds of streams by Chinese. An English firm made an exploration of this locality some years ago, but discovered that there was not enough tin to repay European capital and labour. The recent abolition of the export duty is said to have stimulated the production of the metal in Southern Tenasserim. *Gold* is found in small quantities at Shwe-gyin, once noted for its gold diggings, which are now exhausted. A search made for the quartz reefs, from which the gold in the river is derived, was unsuccessful. There is lead in Shwe-gyin District which has drawn the attention of capitalists; and antimony is found in the Toungwaing Hills at Maulmain, where it occurs disseminated in small grains through the rocks.

Forests.—At least 50,000 square miles of hill, valley, and plain in British Burma are covered with forests and woods of one kind or another. These forests yield ample supplies of timber, bamboos and other products to the people of the country. But to the world outside Burma, the forests are chiefly known from the teak timber and the cutch (a dye and tannin obtained by boiling chipped wood of the *Acacia catechu*) which they produce. Teak has been exported for many years from Rangoon (the value in 1805 was £46,115), but in the early periods the forests in Tenasserim and the Shan States were but little worked. After the cession to the British of Arakan and Tenasserim, the forests were examined, and the Government directed that they should be reserved as State property. Although the price of teak has risen 50 per cent., there has been no decrease in the demand. The average annual yield of teak timber from Burma, for the five years ending 1880–81, was about 227,000 tons, of which 135,000 tons, worth about £470,000, were exported. In 1881–82, the out-turn of teak was 31,246 tons from Government forests, and the imports from foreign territory 154,290 tons, total 185,536 tons; the exports from Rangoon and Maulmain being returned at 133,751 tons. During the five years ending i 1881–82, 13 per cent. of the total quantity was yielded by forests i British territory, and 87 per cent. by forests beyond the frontier; and o the total out-turn 23 per cent. was used in the country itself, while th remainder was exported. On the average, it may be stated that one-fift of the present teak supply is from forests in British Burma, and four-fift from trans-frontier forests situated on the upper waters of the Salw Sittaung, and Irawadi rivers. Improvements in water communicati will probably open out fresh sources of teak supply in the upper valleys the Siam and Cambodia rivers—localities which have not yet been tapp

The Government revenue derived from forests in British Burma

1881–82 was £223,180, as compared with £77,240 in 1871–72. The expenditure in 1881–82 was £115,022, showing a surplus of £108,158. There seems little chance that the demand for teak will abate; its employment for a variety of purposes in Europe and other countries is still steadily extending. In the trans-frontier forests there has hitherto been much waste, and no attempt at conservancy. It has become necessary, therefore, in view of the increasing demand for teak, that the forests of British Burma should be systematically conserved. The first step in this direction was to protect from fire and from the axes of the jungle tribes the best teak-producing areas. The Karens and other hill tribes often prefer a teak forest for their *taungyas* or nomadic cultivation. As already explained, the nomadic cultivator cuts down the forest on three to five acres early in the year, burns the timber and brushwood when dry, sows mixed crops in the ashes, and reaps them in the cold season. The following spring he goes on to another plot of forest, and treats that in the same way. Meanwhile bamboos and underwood grow up on the plot he has abandoned. After a period of seven to fourteen years he returns to his first clearing, or to one of his neighbours', and begins the process over again; or he goes off to another valley and cuts fresh *taungyas* there, returning after 20 or 25 years to his old ground. It is not only the axe of the Karens that destroys the teak forests. The fires which they kindle at the season when everything is driest, spread far and wide, and kill the trees and saplings for many miles round a single Karen hamlet. To prevent this yearly destruction of valuable forests is the chief aim of the forest officials, and already 3274 square miles of teak-producing forests have been selected and demarcated as reserves, at a total expenditure up to 1881–82 of £7771.

The Karens and other hill tribes dislike forest reservation, partly because it brings some hardships, but chiefly because it puts restraint on the boundless licence they have been wont to enjoy. The attitude of these people is thus described by the Pegu conservator. He says: 'The Karens themselves say that once they were like jungle-fowl, hiding where they liked, scratching the earth here and there, and putting in a grain of rice, and eating what came of it if the *nats* (*i.e.* spirits) permitted, but that now the Forest Department put them into boundaries here and boundaries there, and that they feel like pigs in a pen. But after a certain time has elapsed, they rarely deny that their latter state is preferable to their former, more especially in or near fire-traced reserves, where work is constantly obtainable. With the careful way in which inquiries are made and privileges and rights granted, we have a right to expect such favourable results.' This, it must be remembered, is the statement of a forest officer, who naturally thinks well of his own Department. It would really appear, however, that owing to the large surplus of available land, forest conservation does not press so hard upon the people of

Burma as it does in some of the densely-crowded Districts of the Indian peninsula. Although the area of the reserves is now so large, there were only two breaches of the rules and no prosecutions in the Tenasserim, and only nine prosecutions in the Pegu Circle. Eventually these reserves will cover an area of some 4000 square miles, out of which at least 2500 square miles will, within the next forty years, yield annually an average of about 10 cubic feet to the acre, or 128 tons of teak per square mile. At this rate the yield of the reserves ought to reach 320,000 tons per annum.

In addition to the protection of the reserves, small areas are regularly planted with teak each year by the hill tribes in their *taungyas*, at a cost of from Rs. 8 (16s.) to Rs. 14 (28s.) per each acre planted; and up to 1881–82 no less than 8000 acres were covered with teak plantations, at a cost of £35,762, or £4, 12s. per acre. The average number of seedlings per acre is 600. These plantations are being extended at the rate of 1200 acres a year, and it is believed that they ought to be yielding mature teak about 80 years hence. It has been calculated that 120,000 acres of plantation should yield at least 1000 tons of teak a year, but it has still to be proved how far mature teak will come to perfection in plantations. Sixty or seventy years hence, if teak continues to be in demand, the forest reserves of British Burma ought to yield a revenue of £500,000 a year.

Although teak is the most valuable produce of the Burmese forests, there are many other kinds of valuable timber with which the people build their houses. The iron wood (*pyin-gado*) yields large and durable house-posts, railway sleepers, and piles for timber bridges, while other varieties of trees furnish good scantlings and planks. As teak gets dearer, these woods are coming into more general use, and something has been done to introduce the more handsome Burmese woods into the furniture trade of Europe.

The experimental cultivation of various exotics has been tried at Mergui and Tharrawadi, with success. At Thandaung, some miles to the north of Toung-gu, there are about 54,000 plants of cinchona, which, however, do not thrive so well as could be wished. The cultivation of tea and coffee at Thandaung, undertaken recently as an experiment, promises to be successful, as the plants of both are growing well.

The interior Districts of the Tenasserim Division, owing to their sparse population and the absence of communication, still remain for the most part a *terra incognita*. Hundreds of square miles of wast lands, covered with valuable timber, grass, and bamboos, here await th enterprising pioneers of industries, who have made Ceylon, Assam, an other parts of India the centres of a flourishing commerce. Almost the products that have gained for the Straits a reputation grow in the tracts. For tea, coffee, and cinchona, the conditions of success are sa to be as good as in Ceylon, Coorg, or Assam. On the other ha

it is stated that the excessive rainfall counteracts the favourable conditions of situation and climate. Repeated experiments can alone settle the commercial success or failure of these crops in Tenasserim. Grants of waste land have been announced as available in lots ranging from 100 to 1200 acres, under the Burma Land Act of 1876, for the planting of tea, cinchona, coffee, and spices in Tavoy District, at altitudes varying from 100 to 6800 feet above the sea. The region of waste land to be granted lies between the 13th and 14th parallels of north latitude, where the rainfall ranges from 190 to 220 inches a year. The lands are chiefly within 30 to 50 miles of the steamer station of Thayetchaung on the Tavoy river; and mail steamers ply between that station and Maulmain or Rangoon, once a week, inwards and outwards. A grantee must bring under cultivation one-third of his allotment within 12 years from the date of obtaining his grant. The Government reserve their right to all minerals and metals found upon the land.

STATEMENT OF THE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE (IMPERIAL, LOCAL AND MUNICIPAL) OF THE PROVINCE OF BRITISH BURMA FOR THE YEAR 1881–82.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Land Revenue,[1]	£1,052,261	Refunds and drawbacks,	£20,712
Forests,	223,180	Charges on collection, including interest for productive public works,	487,142
Excise,	224,986	Interest on service funds, etc.,	921
Provincial rates,	78,121	Post-office,	5,918
Customs,	648,657	Administration,	42,018
Salt, import duty,	14,780	Minor departments,	9,470
Salt, excise duty,	4,918	Law and justice,	147,353
Opium,	30,314	Police,	191,728
Stamps,	82,153	Marine,	40,371
Registration,	1,606	Education,	32,403
Post-office,	23	Ecclesiastical,	5,397
Minor departments,	358	Medical services,	22,346
Law and justice,	53,131	Stationery and printing,	15,606
Police,	21,888	Political,	5,875
Marine,	17,681	Allowances, furlough, etc.	970
Education,	4,704	Superannuations,	14,074
Medical,	1,460	Miscellaneous,	14,434
Stationery and printing,	550	Irrigation and navigation,	49,789
Interest,	1,090	Other public works,	387,416
Superannuations,	512	Loss by exchange,	28
Miscellaneous,	15,329	Contributions,	83,525
Railways,	152,932	Excluded local funds,	129,377
Irrigation and navigation,	3,196	Municipalities,	223,203
Other public works,	16,760		
Gain by exchange,	794		
Contributions,	83,525		
Excluded local funds,	130,342		
Municipalities,	130,149		
Total,	£2,995,400	Total,	£1,930,076

[1] Including capitation tax, which to some extent takes the place of land revenue.

Revenue, etc.—The statistics given in the foregoing pages illustrate the remarkable progress made by the Province since it came under British administration. Its growing prosperity is not less strikingly shown by the figures of the preceding table. The revenue of Arakan expanded between 1826 and 1855 from £23,225 to £127,729; while that of Tenasserim rose from £2676 in 1829 (three years after its annexation) to £83,300 in 1855. Between 1855 and 1882, the revenue of the whole Province has increased from about a million sterling to nearly three millions.

The proportion of gross revenue contributed by each Division of British Burma is — from Arakan, 13·53 per cent.; from Pegu, 45·96; from Irawadi, 25·37; and from Tenasserim, 15·14; and the average incidence of taxation per head of population is 16s. The main sources of imperial income are land, customs, excise, and forests. Speaking roughly, the land-tax furnishes more than one-third of the total revenue, customs about one-fifth, and excise and forests in nearly equal proportions more than one-tenth. Capitation tax and fishery rents form special features of the administration. The former is levied on the male population between the ages of eighteen and sixty, at the rate of 10s. a head for married men, and half that amount for bachelors. Exceptions are made in favour of religious and other teachers, Government servants, all persons unable to earn their own living, and all immigrants for the first five years. Traditional usage affords the principal argument for maintaining this old-fashioned impost. The gross amount it realized in 1881–82 was £295,670, levied on 732,988 persons. Land-rate in lieu of capitation tax is imposed in the towns of Akyab, Kyauk-hpyu, Rangoon, Prome, Bassein, Thayet-myo, and Toung-gu. The revenue demand on account of fisheries in 1881–82 amounted to £133,774. The sea-fishing is mainly in the hands of natives of India; and the fishermen are a class by themselves, and as a body not in very good repute. There is no general salt-tax in Burma as in India, and the land-tax is kept very low.

Administrative Statistics.—There are at present 153 Courts of Law in the Province, besides a Judicial Commissioner and a Recorder at Rangoon. The two last, when sitting together, exercise the powers of a supreme appellate tribunal. There are also unpaid 'honorary magistrates; 155 courts have both civil and criminal jurisdiction. Th subordinate courts are almost entirely presided over by native official In criminal work during the year 1881, there were 30,353 cases reporte and 27,312 persons convicted out of 41,819 put on trial. The total prisoners in the 14 jails of the Province was 16,294, only 2·8 per cent. whom were women. The daily average jail population was 4726; the to expenditure, £33,533; and the average net cost per head, £5, 3s. The police force of the Province during the year 1881 consisted

7131 officers and men; equivalent to one policeman to every $10\frac{3}{4}$ square miles, or to every 524 of population; the total cost was £168,693.

The Education of the people is under the care of a special department. It is chiefly conducted through the agency of the indigenous lay and monastic schools already described, the *phúngyís* or monastic order being nearly all engaged in teaching. Direct Government effort is mainly confined to inspection and higher instruction. Missionary schools are also liberally aided by the State. In the year 1880, the number of seminaries under State control or inspection aggregated 3012, and the pupils, 79,270. Of these, 2645 were monastic schools attended by 65,320 pupils. The above figures are exclusive of the large number of uninspected monastic schools, for which no statistics are available. But according to the Census of 1880, there were in that year 215,237 boys and 31,057 girls receiving instruction of some sort in the Province, besides 701,828 males and 31,740 females able to read and write, but not under instruction; proportion of males able to read and write, 46·05 per cent. of the male population, and of females, 3·6 per cent. of the female population.

There is a Port Fund at each of the principal ports, Rangoon, Bassein, Maulmain, and Akyab, the aggregate income of which for 1881–82 amounted to £74,023. The effective strength of the troops of all arms stationed in the Province at the end of March 1882, was 5106 officers and men. There were 21 printing-presses at work in the Province. The only two institutions of note are the Agri-Horticultural Society and the Rangoon Literary Society. Situated within the gardens of the former is the Phayre Museum.

There are 7 *Municipalities*—Rangoon, Maulmain, Akyab, Bassein, Henzada, Prome, and Toung-gu. Rangoon has a population double, and a revenue four-fold, that of any other. Municipal institutions have been now some eight years in existence, and, as a rule, are working favourably. The total income of the above 7 municipalities during 1881–82 was £248,452, of which £104,561 came from loans, £90,817 from local taxation, and £15,233 from grants from provincial funds. The incidence of municipal taxation per head of the town population ranges from 3s. $4\frac{1}{2}$d. in Rangoon to 5s. 10d. in Akyab.

Medical Aspects, Climate, etc.—The climate of British Burma is moderate and equable. Notwithstanding the heavy rainfall, the health of European troops stationed in the Province, which was very bad during the earlier years of occupation, is now better, on the average, than in India proper. The great drawback to life in British Burma is the want of a sanitarium where Europeans can recruit their strength. Many proposals have been made to this end, and several sites have been suggested on the high mountain ranges of the Province; but however pleasant they were found in the summer, they have had to be

abandoned in the rains, so incredibly rapid is the growth of vegetation at this season. Attempts have also been made to establish seaside sanitaria—at Dalhousie, near the mouth of the Bassein river, and at Amherst, near the mouth of the Salwín river—but without success. Another site was tried at Thadaung-gyi, a hill 3900 to 4500 feet above the sea, and within 23 miles of Toung-gu, to which place the railway will probably be opened in 1884. Although this place is unsuited to Europeans by reason of the constant rain and mist, it is still undergoing trial. Another higher ridge called Nattaung, about 70 miles from Toung-gu, has been suggested, and two sites from 6000 to 7000 feet above sea-level among the ranges behind Maulmain; but these three are difficult of access. The Provincial death-rate in 1881 was, according to the District returns, slightly over 16 per 1000. Such returns do not, however, stand the test of statistical criticism, although the superior physique, domestic comfort, and architectural contrivances of the people would in some measure account for a low figure. The mortality among the jail population is 45·10 per 1000. The death-rate of children under one year of age is 18 per cent. of the total deaths of all ages.

In the year 1882, meteorological observations were taken at 19 stations in the Province. The rainfall in British Burma is very large, and varies from a total of 211 inches in the year at Kyauk-hpyu to 43 at Prome, the general average being about 127 inches. The great Indian rain-belt, stretching south from the Himálayas along the Bay of Bengal, includes all the seaboard and delta of the Province, but the more inland stations are comparatively dry. The greatest heat was during March, April, and May. It ranged from 109° F. at Thayet-myo to 89° at Kyauk-hpyu. The lowest minimum at 10 A.M., viz. 55°, occurred at Toung-gu in January. The thermometric mean range was inconsiderable, varying from 25° at Thayet-myo to 14° at Tavoy.

Fever and bowel complaints are the only forms of physical ailment which a Burman recognises, and he groups under the former head all that are manifestly not assignable to the latter. This faulty diagnosis explains the extraordinary proportion of deaths from fever, which are shown in the returns as constituting no fewer than 47 per cent. of the total mortality. As a fact, severe malarial poisoning is not common, the chief fevers being febricula and quotidian intermittent. Cholera and small-pox occur as occasional epidemics, the mortality from the former in 1881 being 1·42 per 1000, and from the latter ·48. Leprosy is rare. There were only 2589 lepers at the time of the last Census, constituting 0·69 per 1000 of the population. The Burmese very generally resort to inoculation; but vaccination is being gradually introduced by Government agency, and a little over 10 per 1000 of the population were successfully vaccinated in 1881.

Cattle-disease has of late years assumed formidable proportions. Increase of work and decrease of pasturage, together with insufficient food during the hot season, cause great ravages among the live stock. In 1876, 60,000 head of cattle perished in the Arakan Division; and there was a decrease of 14,000 head in a single District. Since then there has not been any serious epidemic. The majority of cases were pure rinderpest, although dysentery, hoven, and foot-and-mouth disease often occur. In 1874, a school was established at Rangoon, where Burmese pupils are specially instructed in veterinary science.

Burma, Independent.—A native kingdom beyond the mountainous

For the ANNEXATION of INDEPENDENT BURMA in 1886, and subsequent changes, see Preface to Volume XIV.—W. W. H.

on the north by Assam and Tibet; and on the east by China and the Shan States. Its limits extend from 19° 30′ to about 27° 15′ N. lat., and from about 93° 52′ to 100° 40′ E. long., with an estimated area of about 190,000 square miles.

The Burmese territory is watered by three great streams, namely, the Irawadi and the Kyeng-dweng, which unite their courses at 21° 50′ N. lat., and the Salwín. The first two rivers have their sources somewhere in the northern chain of mountains in the interior, one head stream of the Irawadi probably coming from Tibet; and the Salwín has its source farther to the east in Tibet. The Myit-nge, a large affluent of the Irawadi, drains the Shan States to the east of the capital; the Shweley, another large affluent rising in Yunan, flows south of Bhamo. Except the two last, which have a westerly direction, they all run in a southerly course to the Indian Ocean. Another large stream, the Nam-Kathe or Manipur river, drains the Lushai and Manipur Hills, and flows into the Kyeng-dweng. The Irawadi and Salwín, in the lower part of their course, overflow the flat country below their banks during the season of the rains, and higher up force their way through magnificent defiles. The former is navigable a considerable distance above

Bhamo; but the latter is practically useless as a means of communication, owing to the frequent obstacles in its channel. The Burmese empire with its present limits contains no maritime districts, and only isolated tracts of alluvial plain; it is in the main an upland territory, bounded at its southern extremity by a frontier line at the distance of about 200 miles from the mouths of the Irawadi, in 19° 30′ N. lat. From this point the country begins to rise, and thence for about 300 miles farther, it contains much rolling country intersected by occasional hill ranges; beyond, all is wild and mountainous.

Natural Products.—Although inferior in point of fertility to the low-lying tracts of British Burma, the upland country is far from unproductive. The chief crops are rice (of which the Burmese count 102 different sorts), maize, millet, wheat, various pulses, tobacco, cotton, sesamum, mustard, and indigo. The sugar-cane appears to have been long known to the Burmese; but, though the climate and soil are extremely favourable, it is not generally cultivated. A cheap and coarse sugar is obtained from the juice of the Palmyra palm, which abounds in the tract south of the capital. The cocoa-nut and areca palms are not common. The tea-plant, which is indigenous, is cultivated in the hills by some of the mountain tribes at the distance of about five days' journey, and by others in still greater perfection at the distance of about ten days' journey from Mandalay. It seems, however, to be another plant, probably the *Elæodendron persicum*, which furnishes the principal ingredient in the *hlapét*, or pickled tea, which forms a favourite Burmese delicacy and is an essential accompaniment to every social or ceremonial incident. Cotton is grown in every part of the kingdom and its dependencies, but chiefly in the dry lands and climate of the Upper Provinces. Indigo is indigenous, and is universally cultivated, but in a very rude manner; it is still more rudely manufactured, so as to be wholly unfit for exportation abroad. The most common fruits in Burma are the mango, the tamarind, the guava, the orange, the citron, the pine, the custard apple, the jack, the *papaya*, and the plantain. The yam and the sweet potato are grown, but not extensively; the common potato is largely cultivated by the Kakhyens on the Chinese frontier, where it is known by the name of 'foreigner' root.' Onions are produced; and capsicum, which, after salt, i the most ordinary condiment used by the Burmese, is cultivate everywhere.

Forests.—The forests of Burma abound in valuable trees. Amo these teak holds a conspicuous place, though some of the finest te forests were lost to the Burmese with Pegu. Almost every descripti of timber known in India grows in the forests, from which also abundant supply is obtained of the varnish employed by the Shans a the Burmese in their manufacture of lacquered ware. Stick-lac of

excellent quality is obtained in the woods, and rubber of late years has been largely exported.

Minerals.—Burma is rich in minerals. It produces gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, antimony, bismuth, amber, coal, petroleum, nitre, natron, salt, limestone, and marble, the jade or *yu* of the Chinese, sapphires, and other precious stones. Gold is found in the sands of different rivers, and also towards the Shan territory on the eastern frontier; but the demand is very much greater than the native supply. There are silver mines near the Chinese frontier, but they have not been worked recently. The mountainous districts of the Shan territory contain almost all the other metals; but they are scantily exported, and the copper and tin seen in the capital are imported from China. Iron is found in several places, and is wrought especially at Poppa, near a mountain of that name to the eastward of the old capital Pagan, and also at Myedú, north-west of Mandalay; but, owing to ignorance and the want of proper methods, about 30 or 40 per cent. of the metal is lost in the process. Large deposits of rich magnetic oxide, as yet untouched, exist in the ridges east of Mandalay near the banks of the navigable river Myit-nge, and the same district contains lime in great abundance and of remarkable whiteness; while statuary marble, equal to the best Italian kinds, is found about 15 miles north of Mandalay, to the east of the Irawadi. Mines of amber are wrought, among other places, at Húkhong or Payendwen, near the sources of the Kyeng-dweng. Nitre, natron, and salt are found in various quarters. Sulphur also occurs in some places, as in the district of Sale-Myo, and in the neighbourhood of the petroleum wells; but the quantity is comparatively small. Coal has been discovered in patches, but not in any quantity worth working. Petroleum is found near the village of Ye-nangyaung, on the banks of the Irawadi. Here are upwards of one hundred pits or wells, with a general depth of from 210 to 240 feet, though some of them reach to the depth of 300 feet. The liquid appears to boil up from the bottom like an abundant spring, and is extracted in buckets, and sent to all quarters of the country. The annual yield is calculated at 11,690 tons. A good deal is now exported to England.

The precious stones produced in the Burmese territories are chiefly the sapphire and the ruby. They are found about 60 or 70 miles in a north-east direction from Mandalay, over an area of about 100 square miles. All stones are sent to the Crown treasury. No stranger is ever permitted to approach the spots where these precious stones are found. The *yu* or jade mines are situated in the Mogoung district, about 23 miles south-west of Maing-khúm. Momien, in Yunan, was formerly the chief seat of the manufacture of jade, and still produces a considerable quantity of small articles.

Feræ Naturæ.—Burma, abounding as it does in deep, impenetrable jungles, affords extensive shelter to wild animals. Elephants and wild hogs are very numerous, and the single and double-horned rhinoceros are not uncommon. There are nearly 30 kinds of carnivora, including the tiger, leopard, bear, and wild cat. Quadrumana are found in 6 or 7 distinct species; and among ruminants, the barking deer, hog deer, Rusa (*sámbhar*), goat-antelope, bison, buffalo, and wild ox. Rabbits are unknown, but hares are common. There are 2 species of porpoises, which are found very far inland. The rivers, lakes, and estuaries swarm with fish, including whiting, mullet, carp, barbel, bream, shad, and cat-fish. Aquatic birds abound in endless varieties. Among other birds, pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, pheasant, partridge, quail, and plover are found throughout the country. Geese, duck, and fowl are extensively domesticated, and cock-fighting is a favourite amusement with the people.

Domestic Animals.—The domestic animals are the elephant, buffalo, ox, horse, mule, ass, goat, sheep, and pig. The three first are used for draught, the elephant being especially useful in dragging timber. The horse is a small variety, rarely exceeding 13 hands in height. Like the mule and ass, it is used only as a beast of burden.

Population.—The Burmese proper may be generally described as of a short, stout, active, well-proportioned form; of a brown but never intensely dark complexion, with black, coarse, lank, and abundant hair on the head, and very rarely any on the face. The name they give their own race is Mran-má (as written), corrupted vulgarly into Ba-má, and from this the various forms of 'Burma' appear to have been taken. Besides the Burmese proper, there are numerous tribes of Talaungs, Taungthas, Karens, and others who occupy the mountainous country towards the east, many of them in a state of semi-independence; and all round the northern and north-western frontier and along the ranges that traverse the upper regions, vast hordes of Kakhyens, Chins, and Singphos maintain a rough, cateran life, and come down to levy black-mail on the more peaceful inhabitants. The Shans, a race of which the Siamese are a part, constitute a great number of small principalities along the whole eastern border, subject some to Burma, some to China, some to Siam, and in a few cases owning a double allegiance, according to their position. The Shans everywhere profess Buddhism, and have some kind of literature and the traces of culture. The Kakhyens are square-faced, strong-jawed, and oblique-eyed. They are still in a low state of civilisation, are destitute of letters, and have not yet been converted to Buddhism. Their chiefs are supported by offerings in kind,—receiving a leg of every animal that is killed. One industry—the manufacture of toddy and arrack—is extensively carried on by them, and the whole popula-

tion are regular consumers of the produce. Various other tribes, as the Pwons and the Kakus, are scattered throughout the empire; but they are not of much individual importance.

The population of Upper Burma has been variously estimated. Mr. Craufurd, on untrustworthy data, rated the inhabitants at 22 to the square mile, which, under the now contracted limits of the empire, would give a population of 3,090,000. Colonel Yule calculated, in 1855, that, within the area between the British frontier and 24° N. lat., it probably did not exceed 1,200,000; while within the whole empire at its widest limits there were not more than 3,000,000. Count Bethlen states, in 1874, that he obtained statistics of the houses in Burma from a Burmese official, which made the number 700,000, without including those among the Shans to the east of the Salwin. Allowing five inhabitants to each house, this would show 3,500,000 for the total population, and including the Shans probably 4,000,000.

Administration.—The Burmese Government is a pure despotism, the king sentencing to torture, imprisonment, or death, according to his sovereign pleasure. The administration is conducted through ministers whose number, rank, and functions are strictly defined by constitutional precedent; the institutions and court ceremonies are exceedingly elaborate and complex, even to the minutest details. The following description has been condensed from a lecture delivered at Simla, by Mr. K. H. Pilcher, of the Bengal Civil Service, the officer who accompanied the Burmese Embassy in 1882. It gives a clear idea of the administration of the country as carried on at the present day.

The Burmese ministers are of two classes whose duties and position were in old times quite distinct, though they are now more or less merged in each other. The one class consists of those whose authority and responsibility are confined to the palace; originally, no doubt, they were officers of the household. The other class consists of administrative officers, properly so called, who constitute a Great Council of State, called in Burmese the 'Hlút-daw' or 'Hlút,' in which all administrative power is vested. The Hlút or Council thus discharges at once the functions of a house of legislature, a cabinet, and a supreme court of justice. The President of the Hlút is nominally the king himself, or in his absence the heir-apparent, or some other member of the royal family. Practically the prime minister usually presides.

There are in all 14 grades of officers who compose the Council. Eleven of these grades comprise four officers each. They are as follows:—First, the *Wúngyís* or *Mingyís*. The term 'Wún,' by which many kinds of officials in Burma are designated, means literally a 'burden,' and metaphorically a 'burden of affairs' or the bearer of it. Wúngyí is hence a 'great official.' If the title had to be translated

into English, 'Secretary of State' would probably express it best. Each of these chief ministers has his own department or departments, but the distribution of work is a personal matter, and is never unalterably fixed. Their titles are not attached to their office or hereditary, but are given from time to time by the king. There is no such wide differentiation of functions, no such division of labour among the Burmese, whether officials or common people, as there is among European nations. The Wúngyí has not only to consider politics, revenue, and finance, but to decide important civil and criminal suits, to direct military operations, and on occasion to take the field in person as generalissimo. Next to the Wúngyís in rank, come two officers, who, though they have a customary right to seats in the Hlút, yet do not often take part, and have, in fact, little concern, in its business. These are the *Myinzúgyí Wún*, and the *Athiwún*. The former is the officer commanding the principal cavalry regiments, the latter is in charge of civilians, that is to say, persons other than those of the royal family.

After these come the *Wúndouks*, who may be called 'Under Secretaries of State,' or assistants of the Wúngyís. Normally they are four in number, but there are often more, for the rank is occasionally conferred on Governors of important provinces as a reward for good service. As a rule, Wúndouks and all other high officials are known by the name of some town or District.

Next in rank to Wúndouks come the *Nakhandaws*, or 'Royal Listeners.' Their function is that of carrying communications from the king to the Council and *vice versa*. They write these in large notebooks with gilt covers, which are the insignia of their office. They too are four in number.

The *Sayaydawgyís*, or 'Royal Clerks,' are the Assistant Secretaries, who come next in rank; of these officials there are about a score, though the number by custom should be four only, but as they have multifarious work, and are really very important officers, the number has been increased. Their position is somewhat analogous to that of the registrar of a court. They hold preliminary investigations in important judicial matters, and subject to the minister's approva[l] decide unimportant cases themselves; in general business, it is the[y] who do most of the actual executive work.

Next to the Assistant Secretaries are the *Ameindawyay*, four number, whose duty it is to record and transcribe royal orders of kinds, or as we should say, orders of the Government.

The seventh grade is that of *Athongsayay*, officers who form a ru mentary Department of Public Works. They have to keep the pu buildings in repair, and to build new ones when required.

Next in rank are the *Ahmadawyay*, and after them the *Awayy*

The former are drafters; they prepare for issue all letters and orders sent out from the Council. The latter receive and read letters received from a distance—whence the title—and submit them to the ministers. These two classes of officers and their assistants are, in fact, the correspondence clerks.

The two *Thaudawgans*, or 'Receivers of Royal letters,' are ceremonial officers. Three times a year the king holds a *darbár*, called a *Kadaw-bweh*, which literally means, 'beg pardon festival.' At this all high officials and feudatory chiefs, who can, attend and do homage to the king.

The *Sessongsayays*, the next in rank, make lists of all gifts presented to the king and read them out at *darbárs*.

The *Yongzau* is a sort of master of ceremonies, who makes arrangements for *darbárs*, gives notice to the officers who are to attend, and informs them what business is to be done, and what dress they are to appear in.

The *Nechas*, or 'Ushers,' point out to each officer his place at ceremonial meetings of Council and levees.

The *Thissadawyay*, or 'Oath Recorders,' are employed to administer the oath of fealty to all who enter the king's service. The ceremony used is worth describing. The oath is first written down on paper, and read over in a temple before an image of Gautama, the candidate repeating the words; the paper is then burnt, and the ashes are put into a cup of water; the water is then stirred with a small faggot, on which miniature models of the five kinds of weapons used by the Burmese are all tied up together; and finally the person to be sworn in, drinks the cup of water. The five weapons referred to are the bow, the spear, the sword, the cannon, and the musket.

The above are the officers who compose the Hlút-daw or 'Great Council' of the kingdom.

Of the other class whose authority and responsibility are confined to the palace, or officers of the Household, the *Atwinwúns* form the first grade. Their office or place of assembly is styled the Bweh-dyke. The title of Atwinwún means 'Interior Minister,' whose duty it is to transact business generally relating to the interior of the palace, but especially to take up business from the Council to the king. The relative rank of the Atwinwúns with members of the Council is not absolutely defined; as a rule, they are certainly above the Wúndouks at the present day.

Next in rank to the Atwinwúns are the *Thandawzins*, who are supposed to be always in attendance at audiences to take down the king's orders, and to transmit them to the Hlút. They bear forth in state from the palace royal letters, and perform similar ceremonial offices. Next come the chief clerks and officers who have charge of the lighting of the palace, and who keep a record of all persons sleeping inside.

Beside the Hlút and Bweh-dyke, the public and privy councils, there is the Shwa-dyke or 'Treasury,' which is not only the treasury, but also the depository of the archives of the State. The king's artificers are hereditary servants, and the heads of their families are accounted officers of the Shwa-dyke.

The country at large is ruled by Provincial Governors, and is divided into Provinces (or Myos), townships, Districts, and villages. The civil, military, judicial, and fiscal administration of the Province is vested in the Governor or *Myo-wún*, who exercises the power of life and death, though in all civil cases an appeal lies from his sentence to the chief council of the capital. In all townships and villages, there are officers with a subordinate jurisdiction. The late king introduced the system of paying his officials monthly salaries, but it has been very partially carried out.

One of the principal items of revenue in Independent Burma is the capitation, or more properly, the income tax. The rate of this tax varies from 6 to 10 rupees (12 to 20 shillings) per annum on each household; it is fixed yearly, and collected in April or May, either by the District officers or by special collectors selected for their probity.

The priesthood form a separate order, interdicted from all secular employment, and supported by voluntary contributions. They are distinguished by a special costume, which it would be reckoned sacrilege in any other person to wear. There is also an order of nuns and priestesses, who make a vow of chastity, but who may at any time quit their order. Prostitutes are considered as outcasts. The women in Burma are not shut up as in many other parts of the East, and excluded from the sight of men; on the contrary, they are suffered to appear openly in society, and have free access in their own name to the courts of law, where, if ill-treatment is proved, divorce is readily obtained.

Revenue.—The taxes from which the public revenue arises, are in general rude and ill-contrived expedients for extortion, and are vexatious to the people, at the same time that they are little productive to the State. The most important is the house or family tax, which is said to be assessed by a 'Domesday Book,' compiled by order of Mentaragyi in 1783. The amount varies greatly in different years and to a remarkable extent in different Districts. Next in order is th tax on agriculture, which is also very irregularly imposed. A larg part of the cultivated land of the kingdom is assigned to favourites the court, or to public functionaries in lieu of stipends or salaries, is appropriated to the expenses of public establishments, such as wa boats, elephants, etc.; and this assignment conveys a right to tax t inhabitants according to the discretion of the assignee. The co favourites who receive these grants, generally appoint agents to man

their estates; they pay a certain tax or quit-rent to the crown, and their agents extort from the cultivators as much more as they can by every mode of oppression, often by torture. Besides this stated tax, extraordinary contributions are levied directly from the lords and nobles to whom the lands are assigned, who in their turn levy it from the cultivators, and generally make it a pretence for plunder and extortion.

Arts and Manufactures. — The architecture of religious edifices erected in the Middle Ages is of striking and effective character, although the material is only of brick. The general style bears evidence of an Indian origin; but numerous local modifications have been introduced. Perhaps the feature of most interest is the use of the pointed arch, as well as the flat and the circular, and that at a time long anterior to its employment in India. Modern buildings are chiefly of wood; palaces and monasteries, carved with extraordinary richness of detail, and often gilt all over, present an aspect of barbaric splendour. The *daghobas* (*daghoba = dhátu garbha*, 'relic chamber'), which form at once the objects and the localities of Buddhist worship, are almost the only brick structures now erected, and these are often gilt all over. In carving, the Burmese artisans display unusual skill and inventiveness, and give full scope to the working of a luxuriant and whimsical fancy. The application of gilding is carried to an extravagant extent; as much as £40,000 is said to have been expended on this account for a single temple. The finest architectural monuments are to be found in the deserted city of Pagan, but many of the most magnificent are greatly shattered by earthquakes.

The number of religious buildings, small and great, throughout the country is very great: at every turn the traveller finds pagodas or *kyaungs* (monasteries), or lesser shrines, or *zayats* (resting-places for travellers), founded by the Buddhists in order to acquire religious merit. The ordinary buildings are of a very slight construction; all but the more pretentious are built of bamboo, and roofed with grass. They are invariably on piles well raised from the ground. The whole process of the cotton manufacture is performed by women, who use a rude but efficient species of loom, and produce an excellent cloth, though they are much inferior in dexterity to the Indian artisans. Silk cloth is manufactured at different places from Chinese silk. The favourite patterns are zigzag longitudinal stripes of different colours, and the brilliance of the contrasts is frequently gorgeous in its results. The dyeing of the yellow robes of the priests is effected by means of the leaves of the jack-tree. The common, coarse, and unglazed earthenware is of an excellent quality; and a not inartistic glazed pottery is also made. The art of making porcelain, however, is entirely unknown. Iron-ore, as already men-

tioned, is smelted; but the Burmese cannot manufacture steel, which is brought from Bengal.

Bell-founding has been carried to considerable perfection. The largest specimen is that at the Mengún Pagoda, near the present capital, which measures 16 feet across the lip and weighs about 80 tons. Coarse articles of cutlery, including swords, spears, knives, also muskets and matchlocks, scissors, and carpenters' tools, are manufactured in the capital; and gold and silver ornaments are produced at every considerable place throughout the country. Embossed work in drinking-cups and the like is executed with great richness of effect. North of the capital, and east of the Irawadi, as before stated, is an entire hill of pure white marble, and there are sculptured marble images of Gautama or Buddha. The marble is of the finest quality, and the workmen give it an exquisite polish by means of a paste of pulverized fossil-wood. The chief seat of the manufacture of lacquered ware is at Nyaungu, near the ancient city of Pagan; the ware consists of thin strips of bamboo, woven in the manner of basket ware, and coated with lacquer, elaborately and artistically ornamented in coloured patterns. The general use of lacquered ware is, however, giving way before the employment of imported earthenware.

Commerce.—Since Burma was deprived of its harbours and maritime Districts, its foreign commerce has been extremely limited. The trade of the country centres chiefly in the capital, and is entirely in the hands of Chinese, Muhammadan, and Burmese merchants; it is carried on chiefly by way of the Irawadi. The principal imports are—European twist and piece-goods, earthenware and porcelain, fruits and nuts, rice, brass, copper, iron, and other metals, oils, *nga-pi* and other provisions, salt, raw silk and silk goods, spices, refined sugar, and woollen goods. In exchange are given, ponies and cattle, lacquered ware, raw cotton and cotton piece-goods, wheat and gram, cutch, hides, petroleum, other oils, provisions, *jinjili* (sesamum), seed, silk goods, raw sugar, pickled tea, and timber.

The total value of trade with British Burma, for the three years ending 1881, is given in the following table:—

	1878–79.	1879–80.	1880–81.
Imports, ...	£1,775,491	£1,751,388	£1,712,302
Exports, ...	2,000,880	1,807,809	1,613,971
Total, . . .	£3,776,371	£3,559,197	£3,326,273

The decline of trade with British Burma is chiefly due to the unsettled state of the country since the death of the late king. The

arbitrary and oppressive treatment of traders by the present ruler, which has resulted in reducing commercial intercourse between Independent and British Burma, necessitated representations on the part of the British Government, which will, it is hoped, have the effect of restoring the trade to its normal state. The inland trade with China, which the Panthay rebellion had interrupted for years, has recently sprung into renewed activity; cotton and jade are exchanged for copper, lead, iron, and fruit in yearly increasing quantities. The trade of the northern part of Burma is chiefly carried on at large fairs held in connection with religious festivals. The trade of the country would expand indefinitely if the monopolies for certain articles of export, as cotton, sugar, cutch, and pickled tea, granted in 1881 by the present ruler, were withdrawn, and if only a safe road existed between Bhamo on the Irawadi and the confines of Western China.

During the year 1880, two English missionaries travelled from Bhamo across the hills into Yunan, and through Western China to the Yellow river, on which they voyaged by boat and steamer to Shanghai. One of the travellers had been several years in China and knew Chinese well. They were unarmed, and had only two attendants. They were molested once only, and that was at a place two days' journey out of Bhamo, half-way from the Irawadi river to the Chinese frontier. Directly they reached China, they met with uniform friendliness and hospitality. They found the convention of Chefu thoroughly known and observed, and the people wondering why no British merchants had come to settle at Talifu and other towns on the trade-route. The travellers reached Talifu in 21 days, the capital of Yunan in 46 days, and the Yangtsi river in Southern Szechuen in 68 days. At this point they were 1756 miles from Shanghai; and they did the rest of their journey by the Yellow river, excepting the 100 miles of rapids and rocks, between Quichow and Ichang. The flotilla steamers reach Bhamo from Rangoon in 15 or 20 days; and it seems certain that for the millions of Chinese in Yunan and Southern Szechuen, the Irawadi and Bhamo route would be a far nearer, quicker, and cheaper route for trade with Europe, if only the road from Bhamo to the Yunan border were safe. One of the most important articles of trade, in addition to European cloth goods, is salt, for their supply of which all the hill tribes are dependent on Burma.

Money.—A gold and silver currency was introduced by the late king. It corresponds to our Indian coinage.

Weights.—The Burmese dry measure is the *teng*, or basket, which is divided into 4 quarters and 16 *pyís*. In long measure the cubit measures about 18 English inches. Four cubits make a fathom; 7 cubits make a *ta*, and 1000 *tas* a mile, corresponding nearly with 2

English miles. In weights, 100 *kyats* (or *tickals*) make a *viss*, which equals 3·65 lbs. avoirdupois. Four *mats* make 1 *kyat*, and 2 *múgyís* a *mat*.

Calendar.—The current Burmese era commences from April A.D. 639. The year consists of twelve lunar months of twenty-nine and thirty days, one being intercalated every third year. A month is divided into two parts, the waxing and the wane; also into weeks, which follow the usual order of days. The day and night are each divided into four periods or beats of three hours each, commencing from nine o'clock.

Language and Literature.—The Burmese proper use a monosyllabic language, which shows distinct relation to Chinese on one side, and to Tibetan on another. In contrast with Siamese, it is a very soft and flexible tongue, and its monosyllabic character is somewhat modified in pronunciation. It is a literary language, and has been under cultivation for perhaps six or seven centuries. It is written with an alphabet of Indian origin, and the letters are of a more or less circular form. A square variety was formerly prevalent. It has developed a poetic diction of such complete individuality, that it is unintelligible without special study. The national chronicles, or chronicles of the kings (*Mahá-ráza Weng*), trace the royal lineage up to the very earliest ages. Though much of their history is no doubt of a questionable kind, the mutual agreement of the chronologies of the mediæval annals of the various Indo-Chinese kingdoms is remarkable, and affords a strong contrast to the absence of all written Hindu chronology in India proper at the same period. Libraries are common throughout the country, principally in the monasteries. Though a certain kind of paper is manufactured from bamboo pulp, the usual material of the books is the palm leaf, while for ordinary notebook purposes a kind of black tablet, called a *parabaik*, and a steatite pencil are employed.

History.—It is probable that Burma is the *Chryse Regio* of Ptolemy, a name parallel in meaning to *Sonaparanta*, the classic Páli title assigned to the country round the capital in Burmese documents. The royal history traces the lineage of the kings to the ancient Buddhist monarchs of India. This is hypothetical, but it is hard to say how early communication with Gangetic India began. From the 11th to the 13th century the old Burmese empire was at the height of its power, and to this period belong the splendid remain[s] of architecture at Pagan. The city and the dynasty were destroye[d] by a Chinese (or rather Mongol) invasion (1284 A.D.), in the reign [of] Kublái Khán. Afterwards the empire fell to a low ebb, and Centr[al] Burma was often subject to Shan dynasties. In the early part of t[he] 16th century, the Burmese princes of Toung-gu, in the north-east

Pegu began to rise to power, and established a dynasty which at one time held possession of Pegu, Ava, and Arakan. They made their capital at Pegu, and to this dynasty belong the gorgeous descriptions of some of the travellers of the 16th century. Their wars exhausted the country, and before the end of the century ensued a period of decay.

A new dynasty arose in Ava, which subdued Pegu, and maintained supremacy during the 17th, and during the first forty years of the 18th century. The Peguans or Talaings then revolted, and having taken the capital Ava, and made the king prisoner, reduced the whole country to submission. Alompra (the Alaung-paya of the previous article), ruler of the village of Motso-bo, planned the deliverance of his country. He attacked the Peguans with small detachments; but when his forces increased, he suddenly advanced, and took possession of the capital in the autumn of 1753. In 1754, the Peguans sent an armament of war-boats against Ava, but they were totally defeated by Alompra; while in the Districts of Prome, Donabyú, etc., the Burmese revolted, and expelled all the Pegu garrisons from their towns. In the same year, Prome was besieged by the King of Pegu, who was again defeated by Alompra; and the war was transferred from the upper provinces to the mouths of the navigable rivers, and the numerous creeks and canals which intersect the low country. In 1755, the King of Pegu's brother was equally unsuccessful; after which the Peguans were driven from Bassein and the adjacent country, and were forced to withdraw to the fortress of Syriam, distant 12 miles from Rangoon. Here they enjoyed a brief repose, Alompra being called away to quell an insurrection of his own subjects, and to repel an invasion of the Siamese; but returning victorious, he laid siege to the fortress of Syriam, and took it by surprise. In these wars the French sided with the Peguans, the English with the Burmese. Dupleix, the Governor of Pondicherri, had sent two ships to the aid of the former; but the master of the first was decoyed up the river by Alompra, where he was massacred along with his whole crew. The other vessel escaped to Pondicherri. Alompra was now master of all the navigable rivers; and the Peguans, shut out from foreign aid, were finally subdued. In 1757, the conqueror laid siege to the city of Pegu, which capitulated, on condition that their own king should govern the country, but that he should do homage for his kingdom, and should also surrender his daughter to the victorious monarch.

Alompra never contemplated the fulfilment of the conditions; and having obtained possession of the town, abandoned it to the fury of his soldiers. In the following year the Peguans vainly endeavoured to throw off the yoke. Alompra afterwards reduced the town and District of Tavoy, and finally undertook the conquest of

the Siamese. His army advanced to Mergui and Tenasserim, both which towns were taken; and he was besieging the capital of Siam when he was taken ill. He immediately ordered his army to retreat, in hopes of reaching his capital alive; but he expired on the way, in 1760, in the fiftieth year of his age, after he had reigned eight years. In the previous year, he had massacred the English of the establishment of Negrais, whom he suspected of assisting the Peguans. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Naung-daw-gyí, whose reign was disturbed by the rebellion of his brother Hsin-phyú-yin, and afterwards by one of his father's generals. He died in little more than three years, leaving one son in his infancy; and on his decease the throne was seized by his brother Hsin-phyú-yin. The new king was intent, like his predecessors, on the conquest of the adjacent States, and accordingly made war in 1765 on the Manipur kingdom, and also on the Siamese, with partial success. In the following year he defeated the Siamese, and, after a long blockade, obtained possession of their capital. But while the Burmese were extending their conquests in this quarter, they were invaded by a Chinese army of 50,000 men from the Province of Yunan. This army was hemmed in by the skill of the Burmese; and, being reduced by want of provisions, it was afterwards attacked and totally destroyed, with the exception of 2500 men, who were sent in fetters to work in the Burmese capital at their several trades. In the meantime the Siamese revolted; and while the Burmese army was marching against them, the Peguan soldiers who had been incorporated in it rose against their companions, and, commencing an indiscriminate massacre, pursued the Burmese army to the gates of Rangoon, which they besieged, but were unable to capture. In 1774, Hsin-phyú-yin was engaged in reducing the marauding tribes. He took the District and fort of Martaban from the revolted Peguans; and in the following year he sailed down the Irawadi with an army of 50,00[0] men, and, arriving at Rangoon, put to death the aged monarch o[f] Pegu, along with many of his nobles, who had shared with him in th[e] offence of rebellion. He died in 1776, after a reign of twelve year[s], during which he had extended the Burmese dominions on every side.

He was succeeded by his son, a youth of eighteen, called Tsingú-mi[n] ('Changuzo' of Symes), who proved himself a bloodthirsty despot, a[nd] was put to death in 1781 by his uncle, Bhodauphra or Mentaragyi, w[ho] ascended the vacant throne. In 1783 the new king effected [the] conquest of Arakan. In the same year he removed his residence fr[om] Ava, which, with brief interruptions, had been the capital for four c[en]turies, to the new city of Amarapura, 'the City of the Immort[als].' The Siamese who had revolted in 1771 were never afterwards subd[ued] by the Burmese; but the latter retained their dominion over the coast as far as Mergui. In the year 1785, they attacked the islan[d]

Junkseylon with a fleet of boats and an army, but were ultimately driven back with loss; and a second attempt by the Burmese monarch, who in 1786 invaded Siam with an army of 30,000 men, was attended with no better success. In 1793, peace was concluded between these two powers, the Siamese yielding to the Burmese the entire possession of the coast of Tenasserim on the Indian Ocean, and the two important seaports of Mergui and Tavoy.

In 1795, the Burmese were involved in a dispute with the British in India, in consequence of their troops, to the number of 5000 men, having entered the District of Chittagong, in pursuit of three robbers who had fled from justice across the frontier. Explanations being made and terms of accommodation offered by General Erskine, the commanding officer, the Burmese commander retired from British territory, when the fugitives were restored, and all differences for the time amicably arranged.

But it was evident that the gradual extension of the British and Burmese territories would in time bring the two powers into close contact along a more extended line of frontier, and in all probability lead to a war between them. It happened, accordingly, that the Burmese, carrying their arms into Assam and Manipur, penetrated to the British border near Sylhet, on the north-east frontier of Bengal, beyond which were the possessions of the Rájá of Cáchár, under the protection of the British Government. The Burmese leaders, arrested in their career of conquest, were impatient to measure their strength with their new neighbours, and at length ventured on the open violation of British territory. They attacked a party of Sepoys within the frontier, and seized and carried off British subjects, while at all points their troops, moving in large bodies, assumed the most menacing positions. In the south, encroachments were made upon the British frontier of Chittagong. The island of Sháhpurí, at the mouth of the Náf river, had been occupied by a small guard of British troops. These were attacked on the 23rd September 1823 by the Burmese, and driven from their post with the loss of several lives; and to the repeated demands of the British for redress, no answer was returned. Other outrages ensued; and at length, in February 1824, war was declared by the British Government.

Hostilities having commenced, the British rulers in India resolved to carry the war into the enemy's country; an armament, under Commodore Grant and Sir Archibald Campbell, entered the Irawadi river, and anchored off Rangoon on the 10th May 1824. After a feeble resistance this great seaport surrendered, and the troops were landed. The place was entirely deserted by its inhabitants, the provisions were carried off or destroyed, and the invading force took possession of a complete solitude. On the 28th May, Sir A. Campbell ordered an

attack on some of the nearest posts, which were all carried after a feeble defence. Another attack was made on the 10th June, on the stockades at the village of Kemmendine. Some of these were battered by artillery; and the shot and shell struck such terror into the Burmese that they fled in the utmost precipitation. It soon, however, became apparent that the expedition had been undertaken with very imperfect knowledge of the country, and without adequate provision. The devastation of the country, which was part of the defensive system of the Burmese, was carried out with unrelenting rigour, and the invaders were soon reduced to great difficulties. The health of the men declined, and their ranks were fearfully thinned. The monarch of Ava sent large reinforcements to his dispirited and beaten army; and early in July, an attack was commenced on the British line, but proved unsuccessful. On the 8th, the British assaulted. The enemy were beaten at all points; and their strongest stockaded works, battered to pieces by a powerful artillery, were in general abandoned. With the exception of an attack by the Prince of Tharrawadi in the end of August, the enemy allowed the British to remain unmolested during the months of July and August.

This interval was employed by Sir A. Campbell in subduing the Burmese Provinces of Tavoy and Mergui, and the whole coast of Tenasserim. This was an important conquest, as the country was salubrious and afforded convalescent stations for the sick, who were now so numerous in the British army that there were scarcely 3000 soldiers fit for duty. An expedition was about this time sent against the old Portuguese fort and factory of Syriam, at the mouth of the Pegu river, which was taken; and in October the Province of Martaban was brought under the authority of the British.

The court of Ava, alarmed by the discomfiture of its armies, recalled the veteran legions which were employed in Arakan, under their renowned leader Máha Bandúla, in vain attempts to penetrate the British frontier. Bandúla hastened by forced marches to the defence of his country; and by the end of November an army of 60,000 men had surrounded the British position at Rangoon and Kemmendine, for the defence of which Sir Archibald Campbell had only 5000 efficient troops. The enemy in great force made repeated attacks on Kemmendine without success, and, on the 7th December, Bandúla was completely routed by Sir A. Campbell. The fugitives retired to a strong position on the river, which they again entrenched; and here they were attacked by the British on the 15th, and driven in complete confusion from the field.

Sir Archibald Campbell now resolved to advance on Prome, about 100 miles higher up the Irawadi river. He moved with his force on the 13th February 1825 in two divisions, one proceeding by land, and the

other, under General Cotton, destined for the reduction of Donabyú, being embarked on the flotilla. Taking the command of the land force, he continued his advance till the 11th March, when intelligence reached him of the failure of the attack upon Donabyú. He instantly commenced a retrograde march; on the 27th he effected a junction with General Cotton's force, and on the 2nd April carried the entrenchments at Donabyú with little resistance, Bandúla having been killed by the explosion of a bomb. The English general entered Prome on the 25th, and remained there during the rainy season. On the 17th September an armistice was concluded for one month. In the course of the summer, General Morrison had conquered the Province of Arakan; in the north the Burmese were expelled from Assam; and the British had made some progress in Cachár, though their advance was finally impeded by thick forests and jungle.

The armistice having expired on the 17th October, the army of Ava, amounting to 60,000 men, advanced in three divisions against the British position at Prome, which was defended by 3000 Europeans and 2000 Native troops. But the British still triumphed; and after several actions, in which the Burmese were the assailants and were partially successful, Sir A. Campbell, on the 1st December, attacked the different divisions of their army, and successfully drove them from all their positions, and dispersed them in every direction. The Burmese retired on Myede and afterwards on Mellon, along the course of the Irawadi, where they occupied, with 10,000 or 12,000 men, a series of strongly-fortified heights and a formidable stockade. On the 26th they sent a flag of truce to the British camp; and a negotiation having commenced, peace was offered on the following conditions:—

1st, The cession of Arakan, with the Provinces of Mergui, Tavoy, and Yea; *2nd*, The renunciation by the Burmese sovereign of all claims upon Assam and the contiguous petty States; *3rd*, The Company to be paid a *crore* of rupees as an indemnification for the expenses of the war; *4th*, Residents from each Court to be allowed, with an escort of fifty men; while it was also stipulated that British ships should no longer be obliged to unship their rudders and land their guns as formerly in Burmese ports. This treaty was agreed to and signed, but the ratification of the king was still wanting; and it was soon apparent that the Burmese had no intention to sign it, but were preparing to renew the contest. On the 19th January, accordingly, Sir A. Campbell attacked and carried the enemy's position at Mellon. Another offer of peace was here made by the Burmese, but it was found to be insincere; and the fugitive army made at the ancient city of Pagan-myo a final stand in defence of the capital. They were attacked and overthrown on the 9th February 1826; and the invading force being now within four days march of Ava, Dr. Price, an American missionary, who with other

Europeans had been thrown into prison when the war commenced, was sent to the British camp with the treaty ratified, the prisoners of war released, and an instalment of 25 *lákhs* of rupees. The war was thus brought to a successful termination, and the British army evacuated the country. The treaty is known in history as the Treaty of Yandabú.

For some years peaceful relations continued undisturbed. While the prince by whom the treaty was concluded continued in power, its main stipulations were fairly carried out. That monarch, Phagyi-dau or Naung-daugyi, however, was obliged in 1837 to yield the throne to a usurper who appeared in the person of his brother, Kounboungmen or Tharrawadi. The latter, at an early period, manifested not only that hatred of the British connection which was almost universal at the Burmese Court, but also the extremest contempt. For several years it had become apparent that the period was approaching when war between the British and the Burmese Governments would a second time become inevitable. The British Resident, Major Burney, who had been appointed in 1830, finding his presence at Ava agreeable neither to the king nor to himself, removed in 1837 to Rangoon, and shortly afterwards retired from the country. Ultimately it became necessary to forego even the pretence of maintaining relations of friendship; and the British functionary in 1840, Captain Macleod, was withdrawn altogether from a country where his continuance would have been but a mockery.

The state of sullen dislike which followed was after a while succeeded by more active evidences of hostility. Acts of violence were committed on British ships and British seamen. Remonstrance was consequently made by the British Government, and its envoys were supported by a small naval force. The officers on whom devolved the duty of representing the wrongs of their fellow-countrymen and demanding redress, proceeded to Rangoon, the governor of which place had been a chief actor in the outrages complained of; but so far were they from meeting with any signs of regret, that they were themselves treated with indignity and contempt, and compelled to retire without accomplishing anything beyond blockading the ports. A series of negotiations followed; nothing was demanded of the Burmese beyond a very moderate compensation for the injuries inflicted on the masters of two British vessels, an apology for the insults offered by the Governor of Rangoon to the representatives of the British Government, and the re-establishment of at least the appearance of friendly relations by the reception of a British Agent by the Burmese Government. But the obduracy of the king—known as Pagan-meng, who had succeeded his father in 1846—led to the refusal alike of atonement for past wrongs, of any expression of regret for the display of gratuitous insolence, and of any indication of a desire to maintain friendship for the future. Another Burmese w[illegible] was the result, the first shot being fired in January 1852. As in t[illegible]

former, though success was varying, the British finally triumphed, and the chief towns in the lower part of the Burmese kingdom fell to them in succession. The city of Pegu, the capital of that portion which, after having been conquered, had again passed into the hands of the enemy, was recaptured and retained; and the whole Province of Pegu was, by proclamation of the Governor-General, Lord Dalhousie, declared to be annexed to the British Dominions on the 20th December 1852. No treaty was obtained or insisted upon, the British Government being content with the tacit acquiescence of the King of Burma without such documents; but the resolution was declared, that any active demonstration of hostility by him would be followed by retribution.

About the same time a domestic revolution broke out which resulted in Pagan-meng's dethronement. His tyrannical and barbarous conduct had made him obnoxious at home as well as abroad, and indeed many of his actions recall the worst passages of the history of the later Roman emperors. His brother, the Prince of Mengdún, who had become apprehensive for his own safety, made him prisoner in February 1853, and was himself crowned King of Burma towards the end of the year. The late monarch, known as Mengdun-meng, showed himself sufficiently arrogant in his dealings with European powers; but he was wise enough to desire to live on peaceful terms with the Indian Government. The loss of Pegu was long a matter of bitter regret, and he absolutely refused to acknowledge it by a formal treaty. In the beginning of 1855 he sent a mission of compliment to Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General; and in the summer of the same year, Major Arthur Phayre, *de facto* governor of the new Province of Pegu, was appointed envoy to the Burmese court. He was accompanied by Captain (now Colonel) Henry Yule as secretary, and Mr. Oldham as geologist, and his mission added largely to our knowledge of the state of the country; but in its main object, of obtaining a treaty, it was unsuccessful. It was not until 1862 that the king at length yielded, so far as to conclude a treaty at least of commerce. A British Resident was, until October 1879, maintained at the capital. Much interest has been taken of recent years in the restoration of the trade between China and British Burma by the old routes overland, and various important journeys in elucidation of the problem have been successfully undertaken.

In 1867, a Treaty was signed by which British steamers were permitted to navigate Burmese waters, and the appointment of British agents at Bhamo and other stations for the supervision of trade, was formally authorized. In the following year a Government expedition, consisting of Captain Williams as surveyor, Dr. John Anderson as naturalist, and Captain Bowers and Messrs. Stewart and Burn as representatives of the commercial interests of Rangoon, was despatched under the leadership of Major Sladen, Political Agent at Mandalay. The

oyal steamer *Yenán-Sakyá* was placed by the King at the service of he expedition, and letters of recommendation were furnished to the Burmese officials, but in other respects scant courtesy was shown to the party. Escorted by fifty armed police, the explorers advanced in safety about 135 miles north-east of Bhamo to Momein or Teng-yue-Chow, a principal town of the Muhammadan insurgents, known to the Burmese as Panthays, then in possession of Western Yunan; but beyond this it was not allowed by the Muhammadan authorities to proceed, on account of the disturbed condition of the country. In 1869, Captain Strover was appointed first British Resident at Bhamo; and about the same time, the Irawadi Flotilla Company started a monthly steamer service to that town. The King's interest in the commercial development of his country was shown by his erecting and garrisoning a series of guard-houses through the dangerous parts of the Kakhyen Hills.

In 1874, another expedition was despatched, consisting of Colonel Horace Browne, Mr. Ney Elias, and Dr. Anderson, with instructions to proceed, if possible, right across the country to Shanghai in China. To facilitate the success of the undertaking, Mr. Margary, a gentleman familiar with the Chinese language and customs, was commissioned to start from Shanghai and meet the party at Momein or the neighbourhood. The King's reception of the new mission, which arrived on December 23, 1874, at Mandalay, was favourable in the extreme. On the 15th January 1875, the explorers reached Bhamo; and two days afterwards Mr. Margary arrived from Hankow. After the mission had proceeded to the banks of the Nampaung, a river which joins the Tapeng some distance east of Ponline, they heard rumours of hostile preparations in front; and Mr. Margary volunteered to proceed to Manwaing to ascertain the truth of the reports. On receiving from him word that the way was clear, his companions advanced; but on the 23rd of February their camp was attacked by the Chinese, and they were ultimately compelled to retreat, with the sad knowledge that their gallant pioneer had fallen at Manwaing by the hands of cowardly assassins. The Burmese officials stood nobly by the mission, though the enemy assured them that their quarrel was not with them but with the 'white devils.'

The King, who was known before his accession in 1853 as the Princ of Mendún, died on 1st October 1878, and was succeeded, without ar opposition, by one of his sons, called the Theebaw or Thiobo Princ who massacred almost all the direct descendants of his predecessor the month of February 1879. Remonstrances were made by the Briti Resident at Mandalay against this barbarity, but without much effe and the feeling of insecurity which it inspired continued till the close that year. The late king was on the whole, with all his faults, the l

included some portion of Eastern Bengal. As a historical fact, the Cachari Rájás are first found ruling in the hill country, now occupied under the influence of ecclesiastical advisers. Indeed, in 1874 he was re-crowned at Mandalay, in compliance with the requirements of a prophecy; and he made spasmodic attempts to enforce sumptuary laws in accordance with his creed. In his anxiety to raise a revenue, his monopolies and other interferences with trade were injurious to the prosperity of the country.

Although a suspicion in regard to British policy always lingered in the late king's mind, and led him into great expense to little purpose in endeavouring to cultivate a connection with other foreign powers, he generally acted in a friendly manner to the English who resided at his capital; and his reign was never stained with the abominable cruelties that were habitual under his predecessors. He seemed to have a really humane character; and while some of his officials were hostile to European interests, the great mass of the people appear genuinely favourable. As much cannot be said of the present King. The British Resident at Mandalay at the time of Theebaw's accession and of his palace massacres, was Mr. R. B. Shaw, C.I.E. After his death at Mandalay, which occurred in June 1879, Colonel Browne, Commissioner of Pegu, was temporarily deputed to Mandalay as Resident. He was succeeded by Mr. St. Barbe, who was withdrawn with the rest of the Residency officers in October 1879, and the British Government has since been unrepresented at the Court of Ava. At the end of October 1879, an Embassy from the King of Ava arrived at Thayet-myo, where it remained till June 1880; but as it had no authority to make concessions on points which were regarded as important by the British Government, no satisfactory results were attained. In spite of various disquieting rumours, no breach of peaceful relations between the British and Burmese Governments has yet occurred; and although no British Resident is stationed at Mandalay, direct communication has been maintained with the Ava Court. In June 1880, the Nyoung Oke prince, one of the refugee princes who quitted Mandalay shortly after the death of the late king, made an attempt at insurrection, but his operations were feeble and merely caused some temporary disturbance on the frontier. The prince made his escape into British territory, where he was detained and removed to Calcutta. An embassy from the King of Burma arrived at Simla in 1882 with a view, nominally, to a commercial treaty. It was productive of little or no results.

Butan.—*See* BHUTAN.

religion, and repudiate the ceremonial restrictions of Hinduism. The further history of Cachar is a continuous record of strife and decay. The last Rájá, Gobind Chandra, became involved in the struggle

royal steamer *Yenán-Sakyá* was placed by the King at the service of the expedition, and letters of recommendation were furnished to the

Butchireddipalem.—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. —*See* BACHIREDDIPALEM.

Buxár.—Sub-division and town in Sháhábád District, Bengal.—*See* BAXAR.

Bwot-le.—River in Pegu, British Burma.—*See* PA-DE.

Byádgi.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. — *See* BAIADGI.

C.

Cachar (*Káchár*).—A District in the Chief-Commissionership of Assam, lying between 24° 12' and 25° 50' N. lat., and between 92° 28' and 93° 29' E. long.; area, 3750 square miles. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 313,858. This number includes 24,433 hill people, who dwell in the mountainous Sub-division of Gunjong or North Cachar, formerly known as the Asalu Sub-division. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of SILCHAR.

The District is bounded on the north by the Kopili and Diyang rivers, which separate it from Nowgong District; on the east by Manipur State and the Nágá Hills District; on the south by the hill country occupied by the Lushái or Kukí tribe; on the west by the District of Sylhet and the Jaintia Hills. An Inner Line, in accordance with the regulations of the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation, No. V. of 1873, was demarcated in 1875 along the southern frontier, across which British subjects are not allowed to pass without special permission.

History.—The name of Cachar preserves the memory of one of the many kingdoms of indigenous origin which have at various times ruled over the greater part of Assam. When the last of the Cachari Rájás died without heirs by assassination in 1830, the British took possession of the country. But the area then annexed to British India represented but a small portion of the territory once owned by the Cachar dynasty. The Cachari race is supposed to have first established itself, in the country that now goes by its name, in the beginning of the 18th century, having been gradually forced southwards from its original home. But their own traditions, combined with the ethnical affinities of the aboriginal tribes now inhabiting the valley of the Brahmaputra, show that the Cacharis must once have been a numerous and powerful people, dominant over nearly the whole of Assam. No trustworthy records exist concerning this period of Cachari supremacy. It is said to

Resident at Mandalay against this barbarity, but without much effect, and the feeling of insecurity which it inspired continued till the close of that year. The late king was on the whole, with all his faults, the best

included some portion of Eastern Bengal. As a historical fact, the Cachari Rájás are first found ruling in the hill country, now occupied by Nágá tribes, to the north of the Báreli watershed. Their capital was at Dimapur, at the foot of the hills, where extensive ruins of brick buildings and tanks have been discovered amid the dense jungle. The hilly tract of North Cachar is still peopled chiefly by Cacharis, although Kukís and Nágás share the country with them. It is not proved that the Cachari Rájás had any dominion in the Angámi Nágá country adjoining Dimápur, although they probably ruled the hills to the north, now occupied by Rengma Nágás. Subsequently they were compelled to remove southward to Máibong, in a valley between two spurs of the Bárel range, also on the north side of the watershed. Fruit-trees growing amid the jungle, and ruined temples of stone, prove that this settlement was of no short duration. It was at Máibong that the Cachari court first came under the influence of Hinduism. The king is said to have married a daughter of the Rájá of Tipperah, with whom he received as dowry the upper valley of the Barák. There is reason for believing that the Tipperah Rájás are themselves of Cachari descent. Their dynastic title of Barman is the same as that of the Cachari Rájás.

Hindus from Bengal naturally followed up the river from Sylhet, and missionary Bráhmans found their way to Máibong as the pioneers of civilisation. The Cacharis of this period appear as a declining and fugitive race. Their capital at Máibong was exposed to the aggressions of the Rájá of Jaintia; and in the beginning of the 18th century they crossed the Bárel range and settled at Káshpur among its southern spurs. Nor was this the last move. When the British first became acquainted with Cachar, the residence of the Rájá was at Garheritar, in Bikrámpur *parganá*, now the site of a tea-garden. When the Cacharis had thus transferred themselves to the Barák valley, the process of conversion to Hinduism went on apace. Up to that date they had retained their native forms of worship, consisting mainly of the superstitious dread of a multitude of evil spirits, who demanded to be propitiated with the occasional sacrifice of a human being. The formal act of conversion took place as recently as 1790. The reigning Rájá, together with his brother and heir, were placed inside the body of a large copper cow, and thence produced by their Bráhman priests as Kshattriyas of the Rájbansí caste. The Barmans or members of the Cachari aristocracy adopted Hinduism at the same time; but the common people, at least those who occupy the original haunts of the race and are known as Dáos or Parbattias, still retain their primitive religion, and repudiate the ceremonial restrictions of Hinduism. The further history of Cachar is a continuous record of strife and decay. The last Rájá, Gobind Chandra, became involved in the struggle

between the State of Manipur and the aggressive power of Burma, which had already established its supremacy in the Brahmaputra valley. The Burmese won the day, and Gobind Chandra was driven to take refuge in the British District of Sylhet.

In 1826, as an incident in the first Burmese war, he was restored to his throne by a British force. But his English allies did not remain long enough in the country to re-establish his authority. One of his subjects, Tularám Senápati, the general of the Cachari army, revolted and succeeded in establishing his independence in North Cachar. Finally, in 1830, Gobind Chandra was assassinated; and as he left no sons, the British took possession of Cachar in accordance with a clause in the treaty of 1826. The Sub-division of North Cachar was annexed in 1854, on the death of Tularám Senápati, also without heirs.

The most important events in the recent history of Cachar are—the discovery of the tea-plant growing wild, in 1855; the dispersion in 1857 of a body of mutinous Sepoys, who had made their way into the District from Chittagong (*see* CHITTAGONG DISTRICT); and the Lushái expedition of 1871–72, by which the repeated inroads of the hill tribes on the southern frontier were checked. In January 1880, however, the Angámi Nágás from Konoma in the Nágá Hills made a descent upon a tea-garden in the north of the District, and killed the European planter with 22 of his servants. This led to a military expedition against the Nágás in 1880–81, and the further annexation of their formerly independent tracts. The actual assailants on the tea-garden in Cachar were never captured, but relics of the raid were found in Konoma when the village surrendered, in March 1880. Towards the end of 1881, a Cachari fanatic gave out that he was possessed of supernatural powers, and that he had been ordained to restore the ancient Cachari kingdom. He gathered about him an ignorant following, who, after demanding the retrocession of North Cachar, attacked Gunjong, the sub-divisional head-quarters station, which they burnt to the ground, killing three persons. They next attacked the Deputy-Commissioner and sub-divisional officer, who were encamped at Máibong, the ancient Cachari capital. Nine of the assailants were shot down, but the remainder succeeded in making their escape into the jungle. The Deputy-Commissioner received a sword-wound in the hand during the fray, which, for want of proper treatment, brought on mortification, eventually causing his death.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Cachar occupies the upper portion of the valley of the Barák. It is surrounded on three sides by lofty ranges of hills, being only open on the west towards Sylhet. These mountain barriers rise steeply from the narrow plain, overgrown with dense green jungle, and broken by a few hill torrents and white cascades. Besides this background of noble scenery, the valley itself presents

picturesque appearance. In the centre, from east to west, runs a wide-rolling stream, navigable by steamers in the rains, and dotted with many native craft. On both sides, from north and south, low spurs and undulating ridges run down almost to the water's edge, with fertile valleys between. These lower hills, and the many isolated knolls which rise up all over the valley, are now covered with trim tea-gardens—on the lower slopes the carefully-kept rows of tea-bushes, always above flood-level; half-way up, the coolie lines; on the summit, the planter's bungalow. The low lands, wherever possible, are under rice cultivation. The cottages of the people are buried in groves of tufted bamboo and shady fruit-trees.

The following are the principal ranges of hills:—The Bárel range, forming the northern barrier of the valley and the boundary between North and South Cachar, varying in height from 2500 to 6000 feet; and on the south of the Barák, the Bhubans, the Rengti Pahár, the Tiláin, and the Saraspur or Siddheswar Hills, all running from south to north, with a height not exceeding 3000 feet. The absence of plateaux in the upper ranges is remarkable. In shape, the hills are ridged or peaked; some of them form long even ridges, some bristle up into peaks, while others are saddle-backed. The slopes are extremely precipitous, especially the Bhubans range. Most of the hills are covered with forest jungle, except where they have been cleared for *jum* cultivation, or in the case of the lower ranges, cultivated with the tea-plant. The Barák river runs a total course of about 130 miles through the District, first north and then west. Its bed is from 100 to 200 yards wide, and it is navigable throughout the year by boats of 20 tons burthen. Its chief tributaries within Cachar District are—on the south bank, the Dhaleswari, together with its new channel known as the Kátákhál, the Ghágra, and the Sonái; on the north bank, the Jiri, the Játingá, the Madura, the Badrí, and the Chiri. The most important sheet of water in the District is the Chátlá *haor* or fen, a low-lying tract between the Rengti Pahár and Tiláin hill ranges, which during the greater part of the year is drained by the Ghágra river; but in the rainy season, the rainfall on the surrounding hills, assisted by the floods of the Barák, turns the marsh into a navigable lake 12 miles in length and 2 miles broad.

To the extreme south, the land above inundation-level is for the most part forest and jungle, but of late years there has been a considerable extension of rice cultivation in this direction. North of the Barák almost all the plain is cultivated. There is a constant succession of changes in the character of the country; and the rich vegetation and beautiful forms of the hills, the great fertility of the cultivated lands, the size and beauty of the bamboo groves and fruit-trees that surround the cottages of the people, and even the wild and primeval appearance

of the great marshes, give a richness and picturesque variety to the scenery of Cachar which is generally wanting in the monotonous plains of Eastern Bengal. The soil of the valleys is an alluvial deposit of mixed sand and clay, in which clay predominates. On the hills and other elevated tracts, the surface is a rich vegetable mould, and the rocks underneath are composed of quartz, schist, and conglomerate.

No mines or minerals of any value are known to exist in Cachar. Discoveries of coal have been frequently reported, but on examination the deposits have invariably turned out to be anthracite or lignite, not worth working. Petroleum also has been discovered, but not utilized. The local demand for salt was formerly met from salt-wells; but a cheaper and better supply is now obtained from Bengal, and only one of the salt-wells is still worked. The great natural source of wealth to Cachar lies in her forests, which are practically inexhaustible. The two most valuable timber-trees are *járul* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ) and *nágeswar* or *nágkesar* (Mesua ferrea). Boats, logs, bamboos, canes, and thatching grass are exported to Bengal in large quantities. The wood-cutters pay licences at the rate of 2s. per head, and tolls are levied at Siáltekh *ghát* on the Barák river. In 1876–77, a total area of 745 square miles was declared Forest Reserves, and placed under regulations for conservancy. In 1881, the forests yielded a total revenue of £2151. Caoutchouc, the produce of Ficus elastica, is collected chiefly beyond the frontiers of the District. In 1881–82, the registered export of caoutchouc from the two Districts of Cachar and Sylhet was 1466 *maunds* of 80 lbs. each, valued at £5864. Recently, cinnamon and oak trees have been found in the newly-opened country of North Cachar, where the tea-plant also grows wild. The manufacture of tea-boxes gives employment to many. A saw-mill which a few years ago existed at Badrpur for the manufacture of tea-boxes has since been abandoned, and all the boxes are now made by hand. The wild animals found in the District include elephants, rhinoceros, buffaloes, the *metná* or wild cow, tigers, black bear, and many kinds of deer, including the *sámbhar* and the *bará singhá*. The right of capturing wild elephants is a valuable monopoly of Government. The *metná* or wild cow (Bos gavæus) is domesticated by the hill tribes and kept for sacrificial purposes. The animal chiefly used for agriculture is the buffalo.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned a population of 289,425 residing in the plains, and 24,433 scattered over the wild hilly tracts, making a total of 313,858. The Census of 1872 was confined to the regularly-settled portion of the District in the plains, or an area of 1285 square miles, out of a total of 3750 square miles, and showed a total population of 205,027 persons. The number of villages or *mauzas* in 1881 was in the plains 353, and of occupied houses 32,294, showing an average of 819 persons per village, and 8·96 per house. Classified according t

sex, there were in the plains 154,568 males and 134,857 females; proportion of males, 53·4 per cent. This large preponderance of males is due to the presence of the coolies on the tea-gardens. The following figures relate to the hill tracts. Total population, 24,433, namely, 12,368 males and 12,065 females. Number of *mauzas* or village unions, 300, and of houses, 5470, showing an average of 81·5 persons per village, and 4·47 per house. Hindus numbered 10,943, while there were only 3 Muhammadans and 2 Christians in this tract; the remaining 13,486 are made up of aboriginal tribes. Classified according to religion, the Hindus in the plains, as loosely grouped together for religious purposes, numbered 186,657, or 64·5 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 92,393, or 31·9 per cent.; Brahmos, 40; Christians, 765, or ·2 per cent.; and hill tribes, 9570, or 3·3 per cent.

Cachar is a remote and backward District, shut in between lofty hills, which has but recently come under the influence of Hindu civilisation. The population is largely composed of the neighbouring hill tribes, included among the general mass of Hindus in the religious classification just given. The chief aboriginal tribes are—Cacharis, 4425 in the plains, and 10,890 in the hills; Kukís, including the Lushai clan, 2794 in the plains, and 6420 in the hills; Nágás, 5984 in the plains, and 4021 in the hills; and Mikírs, 659 in the plains, and 3045 in the hills. The number of immigrant coolies imported from Bengal and other parts of India in connection with the tea industry is returned at 66,363 (including children) born outside Assam, of whom a few are Christians, as against a locally-born coolie population numbering 20,730. Among the native population, the Manipurís occupy a prominent place, numbering 26,745, all found in the plains. They have migrated from the State of Manipur within the past fifty years, and though the majority now rank as Hindus, some have adopted Islám. They are the pioneers of cultivation on the skirts of the jungle, and are an industrious, peaceable race. The women weave excellent cotton cloth, known as *Manipurí khesh*, which finds a market beyond the limits of the District; and also a kind of fine net, for mosquito curtains. The men manufacture brass vessels. The Kukís, both in the hill tracts and in the plains, are all recent immigrants from the southern hills, and the majority live along the southern frontier. There is, however, a settlement of Old Kukís, as they are termed, from having been the first immigrants of their race, on the north of the Barák river. Since the retaliatory expedition of 1871–72, the Kukís have uniformly maintained friendly relations with the British officers, and a valuable trade has been opened at certain fixed marts on the frontier.

The population of Cachar is entirely engaged either in rice cultivation or on the tea-gardens. There is only one town with a population of more than 5000 souls, namely, SILCHAR, the civil station and head-

quarters of a regiment of Native Infantry, which in 1881 contained 6567 inhabitants. In conjunction with the neighbouring villages, Silchár has been constituted a municipality, with an income, in 1881–82, of £1167; average rate of taxation, 1s. 8d. per head. A large trading fair is annually held here in January, attended by about 20,000 people. Other centres of trade are SONAI and SIALTEKH on the Barák; and Barkala, Udharban, Lakshmipur, and Hailákándi.

An interesting bond of social organization is to be found in the *khéls* or primitive agricultural partnerships, which still retain their vitality, and constitute the ordinary proprietary bodies throughout the District. These *khéls*, which differ in several important respects from the village communities of the rest of India, are variously explained either as a relic of the indigenous revenue system of the great Cachari kingdom, or as an invention of the Bengali Hindus to protect themselves from the exactions of the Rájá. Properly speaking, each *khél* consists of a band of individuals, bound together by no real or fancied tie of blood, nor even by community of race or religion, but merely associated for purposes of common profit. For collection of revenue, the State did not look to the individual cultivator, but to the *mukhtár* or head-man of the *khél*, who was primarily responsible. At the same time, the members of the *khél* were held jointly and severally liable for the default of any of their number; and the property of a defaulter, in accordance with a principle still known as *ghosáwat*, was made over to the *khél* to which he belonged. A certain number of *khéls* were comprehended in a larger corporation, called a *ráj*. Such was the fiscal and agricultural system of Cachar when the British took possession of the country in 1830. The conception of individual property, and separate liability for the Government revenue, has been gradually substituted for it; but the machinery of the *khél* still retains a strong hold upon the sentiments of the people, and is continually reappearing at the present day as an anomaly in the administration.

Agriculture.—The staple crop of Cachar is rice, which yields three harvests in the year—(1) the *áus*, or early harvest; (2) the *sáil*, which is transplanted, and supplies by far the greater portion of the food-supply; (3) the *ásrá* or *áman*, which is sown broadcast. The *sáil* crop is sown in nurseries in June, transplanted into low-lying fields in the following month, and reaped about December or January. The minor crops comprise mustard, linseed, pulses, sugar-cane, chillies, and vegetables. Cultivation has rapidly extended since the date of British annexation, but even at the present time a very small proportion of the total area is under tillage. In 1830, the total cultivated area was estimated at 29,000 acres. By 1881–82, the amount had risen to 256,000 acres, or nearly nine-fold; but this is still only 10 per cent. of the total surveyed area of the District. Almost the whole cultivated area is under

rice, excepting the tea lands. The statistics of tea cultivation are given below. The land revenue is assessed by Government direct with the cultivators, locally known as *mirásdárs*. The last term of assessment was for 20 years, which expired in 1879. The present term of assessment is for 15 years, and the rates fixed vary from 3s. per acre for first-class land, and from 1s. 8d. per acre for second-class land. Leases for a term of years, with favourable conditions, are granted for jungle reclamation. The animals used in agriculture are buffaloes and bullocks. Manure is never used except for the sugar-cane crop. Irrigation is nowhere practised on an extensive scale; but in exceptional years, when the rainfall is deficient, water is thrown upon the rice-fields out of the neighbouring marshes and artificial channels. Spare land is abundant, and the fields are never allowed to lie fallow as a deliberate stage in the process of agriculture, nor is any rotation of crops practised. The out-run of rice varies from 5 to 11 cwts. to 30 cwts. per acre, the proportion of rice to paddy being about as 5 is to 8. Actual famine has never been known in Cachar. Drought, flood, and blight occasionally occur, but not to such an extent as to affect the general harvest. The local production of rice is inadequate to satisfy the local demand, augmented by the large number of labourers on the tea-gardens. The deficiency is supplied from the neighbouring District of Sylhet, whence it is estimated that 300,000 *maunds* of rice are imported every year.

Manufactures, Trade, etc. — Coarse cotton cloth is spun and woven by the male members of Hindu castes, and by the women of the hill tribes. The only special manufactures are a cotton cloth called *Manipurí khesh*, and a fine net, for mosquito curtains, both woven by the Manipurí women; and *parís* or rugs made by the Kukí women. Near Badrpur, and just inside Sylhet District, there is a colony of Manipurí braziers. Most of the tea-boxes required on the gardens are made in the District, from the produce of the neighbouring jungles.

The foreign trade of Cachar is entirely conducted by water, passing by the Barák river through the neighbouring District of Sylhet. The chief item of export is tea. The imports comprise cotton piece-goods, rice, liquors, tea-seed, iron, and woollen goods. The more valuable commodities are carried in steamers, which can navigate the Barák within Cachar District only during the rainy season; the more bulky goods in native boats. There are no large centres of trade in the District. The wants of the coolies are chiefly supplied by means of *bázárs* on the tea-gardens, and at three large annual fairs, held at Silchár, Siddheswar, and Hailákándi. A brisk trade is conducted with the Kukí tribes on the southern frontier. Three recognised marts have been opened, to which the Kukís bring down caoutchouc, cotton, ivory, wax, and *parí* rugs, to exchange for rice,

salt, tobacco, brass-ware, etc. The trade with Manipur is said to be on the decline. The local traffic of the District passes by road rather than by water. The enterprise of the tea-planters has constructed, and now maintains, a very complete system of roads, by which communication is established between their gardens and the river Barák. In 1881, the number of miles of road open was 266, maintained at a cost of £4300.

Tea Cultivation and Manufacture.—The tea-plant was discovered growing wild in Cachar in 1855, and the first grant of land for a tea-garden was made in the following year. Reckless speculation in the promotion of tea companies led to a severe depression, which reached its crisis about 1868; but since that date the industry has recovered, and now makes rapid and regular progress. In 1881, the total area taken up for tea was 211,812 acres, of which 43,563 acres were under plant; the total out-turn was 10,455,982 lbs., being just double the out-turn of 1873. The average monthly number of labourers employed was 36,681, of whom 15,749 were imported from Bengal. The land for tea-gardens has been acquired direct from Government, either on long leases or by sales in fee-simple. It is estimated that a total sum of £250,000 in coin and notes is annually introduced into the District in connection with this industry. A full account of the processes of cultivation of the plant and preparation of the leaf will be found in the *Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. ii. pp. 434–445.

Administration.—In the year 1870–71, the total revenue of Cachar District amounted to £36,711, and the expenditure to £25,291. The principal items among the receipts were — land revenue, £17,956; opium, £2855; excise, £7609; stamps, £8467; forest revenue, £2151. District details of revenue and expenditure are not available to me for a later year. In 1880, the regular police force consisted of 608 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £11,773. The District also maintains a municipal police in Silchár of 9 constables, and a body of rural watchmen or *chaukídárs*, supported by the villagers, and numbering 4376 in 1880. The jail at Silchár, and subsidiary jail at Hailákándi, contained in 1882 an average daily number of 121·21 prisoners, including 9·23 females.

Within the last few years, education has made considerable progress in Cachar, under the stimulus of Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools. Between March 1872 and March 1881, the total number of schools in the District increased from 6 to 100.

For administrative purposes, Cachar District is divided into 3 Sub-divisions, with head-quarters at Silchár, Hailákándi, and Gunjong. The Silchár Sub-division is further divided into 3 *thánás* or police circles. For fiscal purposes, the settled portion of the District is divided into

3 *tahsíls*, comprehending 24 *parganás*. In 1882, there were 2 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District. There were also 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, with powers of a *munsif* or civil judge; 1 Special extra-Assistant Commissioner; and 3 special Deputy Collectors, with magisterial powers. The last were employed in the land settlement of the District.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Cachar differs from that common to Eastern Bengal in being less hot and more damp. The rainy season lasts from April to October, and during the remaining months of the year dense fogs are of frequent occurrence. The average mean temperature throughout the year is about 77° F., the range of variation being 32°. The average annual rainfall for the five years ending 1880–81 was 120·17 inches at Silchár, and 108·59 at Hailákándi. As lying within the mountainous tract that bounds North-Eastern India, Cachar is especially exposed to earthquakes. In January 1869, a shock of unusual severity occurred, which laid in ruins the greater part of the town of Silchár, changed the course of the rivers in several places, and did damage throughout the District to the estimated value of £50,000. Another severe earthquake, which did considerable damage to the town and its neighbourhood, occurred on the 13th October 1882.

The prevailing diseases are fevers, diarrhœa, dysentery, cholera, and small-pox. Intermittent fever usually appears every year, after the cessation of the rains. Outbreaks of cholera are attributed to importation from Bengal, and it has been observed that the path of this epidemic regularly follows the course of the river and other lines of communication. In recent years, by reason of the spread of cultivation and the adoption of sanitary measures, the general health of the people has sensibly improved. The registration of vital statistics is very imperfectly carried out. There are 2 charitable dispensaries in the District, attended in 1881 by 631 in-patients and 7434 out-door patients; the total expenditure was £603, towards which Government contributed £45, including the cost of European medicines, the balance being derived from local funds and subscriptions.

Calastri.—*Zamíndárí* (estate) in the District of North Arcot, Madras Presidency.—*See* KALAHASTI.

Calcutta.—The capital of India, and seat of the Supreme Government; situated on the east or left bank of the Húglí river, in lat. 22° 34′ 2″ N., and long. 88° 23′ 59″ E. It lies about 80 miles from the seaboard, and receives the accumulated produce which the two great river systems of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra collect throughout the Provinces of Bengal and Assam. From a cluster of three mud villages at the close of the 17th century, it has advanced by rapid strides to a densely-inhabited metropolis. With its surrounding

suburbs, and the town of Howrah on the opposite side of the river, which is practically a portion of Calcutta, it contained in 1881 a population of 789,864 souls. The central portion, which forms the Calcutta municipality, had a population in 1881 of 433,219. In 1881–82, its maritime trade amounted to nearly 60 millions sterling; but it fluctuates, according to the state of commerce, from 50 to 75 millions. Taking it at about 55 millions sterling, the exports make up 33 millions and the imports 22, showing an excess of exports over imports of about 11 millions sterling.

The History of Calcutta practically dates from the year 1686. In 1596, it had obtained a brief entry as a rent-paying village, 'Kalikata,' in the *Aín-i-Akbarí*, or Revenue Survey, executed by command of the Emperor Akbar. But it was not till ninety years later that it emerged into history. In 1686, the English merchants at Húglí, finding themselves compelled to quit their factory in consequence of a rupture with the Mughal authorities, retreated under their President, Job Charnock, to Sutánatí, about 26 miles down the river from Húglí town. Sutánatí, then a village on the east bank of the Húglí, is now a northern quarter of Calcutta, extending to the present Chitpur Bridge. Their new settlement soon extended itself down the river bank to the village of Kalikata, between the present Customs House and the Mint; and afterwards down to Govin'dpur, which lay on the southern glacis of the present Fort William. Govindpur formed part of what is now the *maidán* or great Calcutta plain, and included the existing suburb of Hastings on the river bank. These three river-side hamlets (namely, Sutánatí, Kalikata, and Govindpur) have grown into the capital of India. In 1689–90, the Bengal servants of the East India Company determined to make Calcutta their head-quarters. In 1696 they built the original Fort William; and in 1700, they formally purchased the three villages of Sutánatí, Kalikata, and Govindpur from Prince Azím, son of the Emperor Aurangzeb.

The site thus chosen had an excellent anchorage, and was defended by the river from the Maráthás, who harried the Districts on the farther side. A fort, subsequently rebuilt on the Vauban principle, and a moat designed in 1742 to surround the town, but never completed, combined with the natural position of Calcutta to render it one of the safest places for trade in India during the expiring struggles of the Mughal Empire. It grew up without any fixed plan, and with little regard to the sanitary arrangements required for a city. Some parts lie beneath high-water mark on the Húglí, and its low level has rendered drainage a most difficult problem. Until far on in the last century, the jungle and paddy fields closely hemmed in the European mansions with a circle of malaria. The vast plain (*maidán*), with its gardens and promenades, where the fashion of Calcutta now

displays itself every evening, was then a swamp during three months of each year; the spacious quadrangle known as Wellington Square was a filthy creek. A legend relates how one-fourth of the European inhabitants perished in twelve months, and during seventy years the mortality was so great that the name of Calcutta was supposed by mariners to be derived from 'Golgotha,' the place of a skull. The true derivation of the word will be explained in the subsequent paragraph on Modern Calcutta.

In 1707, the East India Company declared Calcutta a separate Presidency, accountable to the Court of Directors in London. In 1710, it contained about 10,000 or 12,000 inhabitants. In 1717, after suffering many oppressions from the Muhammadan Governors of Bengal, the Calcutta Council obtained a confirmation of all their privileges from the Delhi Emperor, together with permission to purchase thirty-eight neighbouring villages, on both banks of the Húglí, to a distance of 10 miles down the river. In 1742, the native inhabitants, in terror of the Maráthá horse, who were then scouring Southern Bengal, 'requested and obtained permission to dig a ditch at their own expense round the Company's boundary,' a semicircle of 7 miles from Sutánatí on the north to Govindpur on the south. Three miles of it were excavated in six months; the alarm then passed off, and the 'Maráthá Ditch' remains unfinished to this day. Meanwhile, the Company was only the *zamíndár* or landholder of the Calcutta hamlets, paying a revenue to the Musalmán Nawáb, at first (1696) of £120, afterwards increased (1717) to £884. It had no power to enhance rents beyond Sicca Rs. 3 per *bígha*, say 20s. per acre. In 1752, Holwell calculated the population at 409,056—probably an excessive estimate.

The chief event in the history of Calcutta is the sack of the town and the capture of Fort William in 1756, by Suráj-ud-Daulá, the Nawáb of Bengal. The majority of the English officials took ship, and fled to the mouth of the Húglí river. The European garrison in the fort were compelled, after a short resistance, to surrender themselves to the young prince. The prisoners, numbering 146 persons, were driven at the point of the sword into the cell used for military defaulters—a chamber scarcely 20 feet square, with but two small windows. Next morning only twenty-three persons were taken out alive, among them Mr. Holwell, the annalist of the 'Black Hole.' This event took place on June 20, 1756. The Black Hole has lately been excavated, and its dimensions bear witness to the horrors of the fatal mistake of that night. It lies at the present entrance from Dalhousie Square to the lane at the back of the General Post Office; and the spot has now been marked by a pavement.

The Muhammadans retained possession of Calcutta for about seven months (1756); and during that brief period the name of the town was

changed in official documents to Alinagar. In January 1757, the expedition despatched from Madras, under the command of Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, regained possession of the city. They found many of the houses of the English residents demolished, and others damaged by fire. The old church of St. John's lay in ruins. The native portion of the town had also suffered much. Everything of value had been swept away, except the merchandise of the Company within the Fort, which had been reserved for the Nawáb. The battle of Plassey was fought on June 23, 1757, just twelve months after the capture of Calcutta. Mir Jafar, the nominee of the English, was created Nawáb of Bengal; and by the treaty which raised him to this position, he agreed to make restitution to the Calcutta merchants for their losses. The English received £500,000, the Hindus and Muhammadans £200,000, and the Armenians £70,000. By another clause in this treaty the Company was permitted to establish a mint, the visible sign in India of territorial sovereignty; and the first coin, which, however, still bore the name of the Delhi Emperor, was issued on August 19, 1757. The restitution money was divided among the sufferers by a committee of respectable inhabitants. Commerce rapidly revived, and the ruined city was rebuilt. Modern Calcutta dates from 1757. The old fort was abandoned, and its site devoted to the Customs House and other Government offices. A new fort, the present Fort William, was commenced by Clive, at a short distance lower down the river Húgli than the old one. It was not finished till 1773, and is said to have cost 2 millions sterling. At this time, also, the *maidán*, or park of Calcutta, was formed; and the salubrity of its position induced the European inhabitants gradually to shift their dwellings eastward, and to occupy what is now the Chauringhi (Chowringhee) quarter.

From that time, the history of Calcutta presents a smooth narrative of prosperity. No outbreak of civil war nor any episode of disaster has disturbed its progress, nor have the calamities incident to the climate ever wrought mischief which could not be easily repaired. The great park (*maidán*), intersected by roads, and ornamented by a public garden, stretches along the river bank. The fort rises from the *maidán* on its western side, and defends it from the river approach; the stately mansions of Chauringhi line its eastern flank; while Government House, the Gothic High Court, the domed Post Office, and other public buildings, tower in fine architectural masses at its northern end. Beyond the European quarter lie the densely-populated clusters of huts or 'villages' which compose the native city and suburbs. Several squares, with large reservoirs and gardens, adorn the city, and broad, well-metalled streets connect its various extremities. A Sanitary Department now attempts the difficult task of introducing

cleanliness into the native quarter. The old contrast which travellers have recorded between European Calcutta as a city of palaces, and native Calcutta as a city of filth, is not quite so strongly marked. On the one hand, the English houses are less splendid; on the other, the native *bastís* are somewhat cleaner and more commodious. This change has of late years gone on so rapidly, that it may be well to extract from the Census Report of 1872 the following descriptions of Calcutta by four eye-witnesses during the latter half of the last century and early in the present one.

Calcutta in the last century.—Towards the end of the last century, the native town, which then as now lay apart from the English quarter, was thus described:—

'It is a truth that, from the western extremity of California, to the eastern coast of Japan, there is not a spot where judgment, taste, decency, and convenience are so grossly insulted as in that scattered and confused chaos of houses, huts, sheds, streets, lanes, alleys, windings, gutters, sinks, and tanks, which, jumbled into an undistinguished mass of filth and corruption, equally offensive to human sense and health, compose the capital of the English Company's Government in India. The very small portion of cleanliness which it enjoys is owing to the familiar intercourse of hungry jackals by night, and ravenous vultures, kites, and crows by day. In like manner it is indebted to the smoke raised in public streets, in temporary huts and sheds, for any respite it enjoys from mosquitoes, the natural production of stagnated and putrid waters.'

Nine years later, Grandpré thus describes the town:—

'As we enter the town, a very extensive square opens before us, with a large piece of water in the middle for the public use [now known as Tank Square or Dalhousie Square]. The pond has a grass plot round it, and the whole is enclosed by a wall breast-high with a railing on the top. The sides of this enclosure are each nearly 500 yards in length. The square itself is composed of magnificent houses, which render Calcutta not only the handsomest town in Asia, but one of the finest in the world. One side of the square consists of a range of buildings occupied by persons in civil appointments under the Company, such as writers in the public offices. Part of the side towards the river is taken up by the old fort, which was the first citadel built by the English after their establishment in Bengal.

'Calcutta abounds with all sorts of carriages, chariots, whiskies, and phaetons, which occasion in the evening as great a bustle as in one of the principal towns in Europe. On the other hand, such animals as die in the streets or in the houses are thrown into the drains, and they lie there and putrefy. From want, sickness, or accident, many a

poor wretch of the human species also expires in the streets. I have seen the body of a poor creature, lying dead at my door, serve two nights for food to the jackals.'

In 1803, Lord Valentia remarked:—'The town of Calcutta is at present well worthy of being the seat of our Indian Government, both from its size, and from the magnificent buildings which decorate the part of it inhabited by Europeans. Chowringhee is an entire village of palaces, and altogether forms the finest view I ever beheld in any city. The Black Town, however, is as complete a contrast to this as can well be conceived. Its streets are narrow and dirty, but the houses [sometimes] of two storeys, occasionally brick, but generally mud and thatched, perfectly resemble the cabins of the poorest class in Ireland.'

'The universal custom of the natives,' writes Price, 'when they obtain a small spot on which to build a hut, is to dig a hole, raise one part of the ground with the earth from the other, and make the walls of their house of the same materials from the same place, and then cover it with straw tied on reeds or split bamboos; the hole in the ground is made smooth, and as deep as they can, and when the periodical rains set in, it becomes a little pond or tank, in which they wash their bodies and clothes, as directed by their religion. Vegetation is so quick and powerful, and shade so necessary, that in six months' time the little hut is absolutely hid from the eyes, and almost from the knowledge of everybody but the inhabitants of neighbouring huts. A little path of a foot or two broad is all those harmless people want to go from home into the common highway leading to the public market. Thousands of these huts are run up wherever they are permitted to build near European settlements. . . . Much ground was cleared to make room for a new fort; many thousand huts thrown into the holes from whence they had been taken, to form roads and an esplanade; but every man who lost a hut had ground given him on which to make another, and always of more extent and more value than what had been taken away from him.

'Much was done by Governor Vansittart, Lord Clive, Governor Verelst, Governor Cartier, and Governor Hastings, to cleanse the town and make it wholesome and convenient. When Mr. Hastings came to the government, he added some new regulations, and gave a degree more power to the officers of police, divided the Black and White Town into thirty-five wards, and purchased the consent of the natives to go a little farther off.

'There are no stones, gravel, or other hard substances within 50 leagues of Calcutta with which to mend the roads. Burnt and broken bricks are all the materials we have, and very expensive they are; for lay them down as thick as you will, so rotten is the soil that in two

years' time they will be sunk a fathom deep. With Mr. Francis cam the Judges of the Supreme Court, the laws of England, partial oppres sion, and licentious liberty; . . . and the natives were made to know that they might erect their *chappor* (thatched) huts in what part of the town they pleased. . . . Every man permitted his own servants to erect straw huts against the outside of his house, but without digging holes, to prevent more disagreeable neighbours from occupying the spot. All distinction of character and order was thrown down, as much as if there had been a civil war in the town; and in fact there was a civil and a judicial war too, for the Council-General and Supreme Court, who both arrived at the same time, went together by the ears about their different powers, and every inhabitant in the town, black and white, did that which seemed best to be done in his own eyes.

'In August and September, the waters from the inland Provinces came down, in consequence of the heavy periodical fall of rain, in such inundations that at the high water at Calcutta, which is twice in twenty-four hours, the level of the lower part of the town is four feet below the surface of the river. At this time of the year it rains incessantly, and all the lower floors of common houses are under water, except such as stand near to the old fort, or where the first European houses were built.'

In the last century, the morals of Calcutta were at a low ebb. European ladies were scarce, nor do they seem to have exercised a refining influence. Until the third quarter of the century, many of the best European houses had regular quarters for a *zanána* in the compound. Nor was a gentleman excluded from ladies' society, nor indeed thought the worse of, in consequence of his keeping a harem of native mistresses. Indeed, such an establishment was considered as essential to the dignity of a bachelor of position as 'the State horses of a Native prince.' 'The Company's servants,' writes Stavorinus, the Dutch traveller in 1769, 'devote a part of the morning to attending upon their business; they spend the remainder of the time either in revels or sleep.'

How Calcutta became the Capital of India.—Until 1707, when Calcutta was declared a Presidency, it had been dependent upon the older English Settlements at Madras. From 1707 to 1773, the Presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bengal remained on a nearly equal footing. But in 1773, an Act of Parliament provided that the Bengal Council should exercise a control over the other Indian possessions of the Company; that the chief of the Bengal Presidency should be styled Governor-General; and that a Supreme Court of Judicature should be established at Calcutta. In the previous year, 1772, Warren Hastings had placed the administration of Bengal under the management of the Company's servants—an administration which till then had been left in the hands of the old Muhammadan officials. He also removed the

treasury from Murshidábád to Calcutta. The latter town thus became both the capital of Bengal and the seat of the Central Government in India.

In 1834, the Governor-General of Bengal was created Governor-General of India, and was permitted to appoint a Deputy Governor to manage the affairs of Lower Bengal during his occasional absence. But it was not until 1854 that a separate head was appointed for Bengal, who, under the style of Lieutenant-Governor, exercises the same powers in civil matters as those vested in the Governors in Council of Madras or Bombay, although subject to closer supervision by the Supreme Government. Calcutta is thus at present the seat both of the Supreme Government of India, and of the Provincial Government of Bengal, each with an independent set of offices. Government House, the official residence of the Governor-General of India, or Viceroy, is a magnificent pile rising to the north of the fort and the great park, *maidán*. It was built by Lord Wellesley, 1799-1804. The official residence of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal is Belvedere, in Alipur, a southern suburb of Calcutta. Proposals have been made from time to time to remove the seat of the Supreme Government from Calcutta. Its unhealthiness, especially in the rainy season, its remoteness from the centre of Hindustán, and its distance from England, have each been animadverted upon. These disadvantages have now, however, been in some degree removed, or their consequences mitigated, by the efforts of science and modern engineering. The railway and the telegraph have brought the Viceroy at Calcutta into close contact with every corner of India; while an ample water-supply, improved drainage, and other reforms, have improved the health of the city. Much, however, still remains to be done for the sanitation both of the town and suburbs.

English civilisation has thus enabled Calcutta to remain the political capital of India. The same agency still secures to the city her monopoly of the sea-borne trade of Bengal. The river Húglí has long ceased to be the main channel of the Ganges; but Calcutta alone of all the successive river capitals of Bengal has overcome the difficulties incident to its position as a deltaic centre of commerce. Strenuous efforts of engineering are required to keep open the 'Nadiyá rivers,' namely, the three offshoots of the Ganges which combine to form the head-waters of the Húglí. Still greater watchfulness is demanded by the Húglí itself below Calcutta. In 1853, the deterioration of the Húglí channel led to a proposal to found an auxiliary port to Calcutta on the Matlá, another mouth of the Ganges. A committee, then appointed to inquire into the subject, reported (not unanimously however) that the river Húglí was deteriorating gradually and progressively. At that time 'science had done nothing to aid in facilitie

for navigation,' but since then everything has been effected which foresight can suggest. Observations on the condition of the river are taken almost hourly, and the shifting of the shoals is carefully recorded. By these means the port of Calcutta has been kept open for ships of the largest tonnage drawing 26 feet, and almost seems to have outlived the danger which threatened it. The construction of large wet docks from the Húglí at Kidderpur, just below Calcutta, has been sanctioned. A new approach from the sea to these docks, *viâ* the MATLA river and a navigable canal, has been talked of.

The Modern City of Calcutta.—The true derivation of the name of the city appears to be from Kálí-ghát, the well-known shrine to the goddess Kálí, close to the old course of the Ganges, or Adi-Gangá, about a mile to the south of the Calcutta outskirts. The neighbouring country was known as Kálí-kshetra in very remote times. The Adi-Gangá is still venerated as the ancient channel by which the Ganges poured her purifying waters towards the ocean, before they were diverted into the present Húglí. This old course, in many parts now little more than a series of depressions and shallow pools, is marked by shrines and burning *gháts* for the dead along its route. Among such shrines, Kálí-ghát, although the present temple is of comparatively modern date, has been celebrated since the prehistoric era of the Sanskirt Epic poems. When Charnock settled on the banks of the Húglí, in 1686, a pilgrim road ran through a thick jungle along the line of the present Chauringhi. This path proceeded *viâ* the Chitpur road through marshes and woods, now the site of Calcutta. At Chitpur it joined the old highway to Mursidábád and the north. The nearest village to the shrine of Kálí-ghát (the village through which the Chitpur road passed) was the Moslemized 'Kalikata' of the *Aín-í-Akbarí*, or Revenue Survey of 1596, and is the Anglicized 'Calcutta' of the present day. A forest, interspersed with swamps, and infested by wild beasts and robbers, lay between the shrine and the village. That forest has now given place to the fashionable quarters of Chauringhi and Theatre Road, together with the adjoining *maidán*, except the strip along the river bank, which was dotted by the old hamlet of Govindpur. As late as the second half of the last century, Warren Hastings shot tigers in the jungle that now forms the fine open space upon which the Cathedral is built. Servants engaged at 'country houses' in that neighbourhood (then a solitary suburb, now covered with some of the best streets of Calcutta) put off their clothes and valuables before going to their homes for the night, lest they should be stripped by robbers on the way.

Chauringhi, with its northern continuations, Bentinck Street and the Chitpur Road, forms, therefore, one of the most ancient pilgrim-routes in Bengal; and this line was destined to become the central street through the modern city of Calcutta. The shrine of Kálí-ghát stood at

the southern end of it, while the northern end was celebrated for the temple of Chiteswarí, which gave its name to the ancient village of Chitpur, now a northern suburb of Calcutta. For about a century after Charnock's settlement in 1686, the English town clustered round the old Fort, which occupied the site of the present Customs House and Post-Office. By degrees it crept along the river bank, both north and south, while the country houses of the wealthier English residents gradually extended as far as Chitpur at the northern end of the central route, and Alipur at its south-western extremity. The *maidán*, or great open plain, was cleared of jungle, partly for the new or present Fort William (built 1757–1773), after the battle of Plassey and the *díwání* grant had given Bengal to the English. But the southern corner of the *maidán*, together with the now fashionable quarter of Theatre Road which skirts it, remained for some time a swampy and jungly tract. Until the middle of the present century, the Chitpur road still divided the English mercantile part of Calcutta along the river from the native viilages or *bastís* which clustered inward to the east of it. By degrees, however, two inner main routes were formed from north to south, running nearly parallel to Chaurínghi and its continuation, the Chitpur road. The middle of the three routes is now represented (beginning from the south) by Wood Street, Wellesley Street, College Street, and Cornwallis Street. The eastern or most inland of the three routes is the Circular Road, which still nominally marks the eastern boundary of Calcutta. The northern part of the Circular Road is formed from the *débris* thrown up from the Maráthá Ditch, when that ancient defence was erected against the predatory hordes in 1742. A section of it runs along the route of the Ditch itself, after it was partly filled up, by orders of the Marquis of Wellesley, at the beginning of the present century.

These three lines, running nearly parallel to the river on the west, are intersected by a number of cross streets connecting them with the bank of the Húglí. The most important of the intersecting streets running east and west are now (beginning from the north) Sobhá Bázár (starting inland from the Húglí bank), with its eastern continuation, Grey Street, called after a former Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, Sir William Grey; Nimtálá (from the Húglí bank), with its eastern continuation, Beadon Street, called after Sir Cecil Beadon, another Lieutenant-Governor; Cotton Street, with its eastern continuation, Machua Bázár Road; Canning Street, called after Lord Canning, the Governor-General (starting from the river bank), with its eastern continuations, Kulatálá and Mirzápur Streets; Lál Bázár, with its eastern continuations, Bow Bázár and Báitákhána; the Esplanade, with its eastern continuation, Dharmtála Street, starting inland from the north-eastern corner of the *maidán* or open plain. From this point the

maidán stretches between the river bank on the west and Chauringhi, with the residential part of the modern city. It contains the cricket ground and the Eden Gardens on the river-side at its north-eastern end. The modern Fort William occupies an extensive site on the Húglí bank, below the Eden Gardens; while farther down the river, the southern end of the *maidán* contains the suburb of Hastings on the bank with the Ellenborough course and race-course, a little inland to the east. A large grassy park, studded with trees, stretches inland from the Eden Gardens, the Fort, and Hastings, to Chauringhi Road. Chauringhi is lined with magnificent houses, about 60 of which occupy a mile and a half of road from north to south. This line of noble structures, facing the open plain, is connected with the fashionable European quarter behind it on the east, by three main routes running nearly east and west, Park Street, Theatre Road, and Lower Circular Road.

Practically speaking, the European commerce of Calcutta is concentrated between the river bank on the west and Chitpur Road on the east, with Canning Street on the north and the Esplanade on the south. Its centre may be taken at the Post-Office, which practically marks the site of the original Fort William. The road along the river bank is known as the Strand, and has for the most part been reclaimed from the river by successive embankments constructed during the past fifty years. The European retail trading quarter lies within a small area inland to the east of the commercial centre. The residential European quarter, as already stated, runs along the Chauringhi side of the *maidán*, and inland from that stately line of mansions.

The Native Quarters of Modern Calcutta skirt the European quarters on the north and east. The large native produce firms occupy, however, the north-eastern portion of the space which has been mentioned as the seat of the European commerce, towards Canning Street. The native shippers chiefly frequent the river-side streets northward from Canning Street up the Húglí. But everywhere beyond the European quarter, Calcutta is interspersed with *bastís*, or native hamlets of mud huts. As we proceed eastwards or inland from the Chitpur road, these *bastís* become numerous, until they form the great outlying suburbs which surround Calcutta on the north, east, and south. The growth of the European quarters, and the municipal clearings demanded by improved sanitation, are pushing these mud hamlets outwards in all directions, but especially towards the east. Price's description of them in the last century has been quoted; and some of them remain in the same filthy and unhealthy state at the present day. They form the despair of municipal reformers and of the sanitary authorities, but the work of improvement is steadily, although slowly, going forward among them. They have given rise to the reproach that Calcutta, while a city of palaces in front, is one of pig-styes in the rear.

Monuments and Public Buildings.—Calcutta is justly celebrated for its monuments. Perhaps the most conspicuous is the tall column towards the north-eastern end of the open plain or *maidán*, in honour of Sir David Ochterlony. 'For fifty years a soldier, he had served in every Indian war from the time of Hyder downwards,' to nearly 1823. It rises 165 feet, with a Saracenic capital, and presents a noble view of the city from its top. Among the monuments to Governors-General may be mentioned those of Lord William Bentinck (1828–1835); Lord Hardinge (1844–48); Lord Lawrence (1864–68), and Lord Mayo (1869–1872). An enumeration of the Calcutta monuments is, however, beyond the scope of this article. One of them is remarkable for beauty of design and spirited execution. The bronze equestrian statue to Sir James Outram, 'The Bayard of the East,' rises on the Chauringhi side of the great park, opposite the United Service Club. It represents the hero with drawn sword, looking round to his troops, and cheering them forward. Nothing can exceed the lifelike action of both man and horse; and although unveiled by the Commander-in-Chief as long ago as 1874, it still attracts groups of native gazers every day, and forms a favourite rendezvous, round which the European children of Calcutta play with their nurses in the evening. It is an admirable example of Foley's work; and to this artist the city also owes several others of its most successful statues.

The present Government House stands at the northern end of the great park or *maidán*, and separates it from the European commercial quarter. As already mentioned, it was built by Lord Wellesley, who held that 'India should be governed from a palace, not from a counting-house; with the ideas of a prince, and not with those of a retail dealer in muslins and indigo.' During the second half of the last century, part of its site had been occupied by Warren Hastings' town residence, and as appears from a plan of Calcutta in 1792, also by the old Government House and Council House. It was commenced in 1799, and finished in 1804, at a cost of £8000 for the ground, £130,000 for the building, and £5000 for the first furnishing; total, about £150,000, or at the present value of silver, about £175,000. The grounds occupy about 6 acres, and the design was adapted from Lord Scarsdale's seat of Kedleston Hall, Derbyshire, built by Robert Adam. Four great wings run to each point of the compass, from a central pile approached by a magnificent flight of steps on the north. The Grand Hall is one of the finest chambers in any palace; and besides the apartments for the Viceroy and his staff, the building contains the Council Chamber in which the Supreme Legislature holds its sittings. Some of the paintings have a historical interest, but not many of them possess high artistic value. The series of Governors-General is neither so complete nor so deficient in pictorial merit as the

remarkable series of Portuguese Viceroys in the Government House at Goa. Various articles of furniture and trophies recall the perilous early days of the Company, having been captured from the European or native powers. The two fine full-length portraits of Louis le Bien Aimé and his queen, with the chandeliers, and twelve busts of the Cæsars in the aisles of the Marble Hall, are said to have been taken from a French ship.

The High Court.—To the west of Government House, nearer to the river, stands the High Court. This imposing structure, in somewhat florid Gothic, was completed in 1872, on the site of the old Supreme Court. The design is said to have been suggested by the Town Hall at Ypres; the front is faced with stone, and the capitals of the pillars of the grand colonnade are beautifully sculptured. The most interesting among its many portraits are those of Sir Elijah Impey, by Zoffany; of Sir Henry Russell and Sir Francis W. Macnaughten, both by Chinnery; and of Sir William Burroughs, by Sir Thomas Lawrence.

The Town Hall also stands west of Government House, between it and the High Court. It is a large building in the Doric style, approached by a noble flight of steps leading up the grand portico. It was built in 1804 by the citizens of Calcutta at a cost of about Rs. 700,000. Among many interesting pieces of art, it contains a marble statue of Warren Hastings, by R. Westmacott, another of the Marquis of Cornwallis, and a more recent one of Rámánath Tagore, a well-known leader and reformer of native society in Calcutta. Among other buildings of note are the Bank of Bengal, facing the Húglí, and the Mint, also on the river. The Currency Office, the Central Telegraph Office, the General Post-Office, a huge, heavy building, and the new Secretariat of the Government of Bengal, line the four sides of the historical Tank (now Dalhousie) Square.

Churches.—The principal churches number about 30, including Protestant ones of many denominations, Roman Catholic, Greek, Pársí, and Hebrew. The Brahma Samáj, or new Theistic sect of Bengal, founded by Rájá Rammohun Roy, have three places of worship. The Hindu temples are numerous, but feeble in design; while of the Muhammadan mosques, the only one of architectural pretensions is the *Masjid* at the corner of Dharmtála Street. It was built and endowed in 1842, says the inscription, by the 'Prince Ghulám Muhammad, son of the late Tipú Sultán, in gratitude to God, and in commemoration of the Honourable Court of Directors granting him the arrears of his stipend in 1840.'

The Cathedral Church of the diocese of Calcutta, St. Paul's, at the southern corner of the *maidán* or open plain, was commenced in 1839, and consecrated in 1847. An earlier project, started in 1819, fell through from want of funds. St. Paul's Cathedral is practically the work of the late Bishop Wilson. Of £75,000 raised for its building and

endowment, the Bishop gave £20,000, and the East India Company £15,000; while the whole subscription raised in India amounted to only £12,000. The remaining £28,000 were subscribed in England. About £50,000 were spent on the building, which is of a style known in Calcutta as Indo-Gothic; that is to say, Gothic adapted by a military engineer to the exigencies of the Indian climate. The trees, which have grown up around it, now help to remedy the deficiencies of the architecture; and the spire rises picturesquely from the evergreen foliage at the extremity of the *maidán* farthest from the town of Calcutta. The Cathedral is built in the form of a cross, 247 feet in length, with the transept 114 feet, and the tower and spire 201 feet in height. The most remarkable monument is a life-sized kneeling figure in bishop's robes, by Chantrey, bearing the single word 'Heber.'

St. John's Church, or the old Cathedral, was commenced in 1784. It was erected to replace a still older Church, built in 1715, the steeple of which fell down in the earthquake of 1737, while the whole Church was demolished by the Muhammadans during their occupation of Calcutta after its capture in 1756. The first meeting of the committee for building the present St. John's was attended by the Governor-General, Warren Hastings, and his Council. The structure cost about £20,000, chiefly raised by voluntary subscription; a native Rájá presenting the old burying-ground, in the midst of which the church stands, together with two acres of land adjoining, then valued at £3000. The only work of art of importance is the old altar-piece, The Last Supper, painted and presented by Zoffany, and now removed to the west entrance. The graveyard around contains, however, several tombs of great historical interest. First in importance is that to Jobus Charnock, the founder of Calcutta in 1686, '*qui postquam in solo non suo peregrinatus esset diu reversus est domum suæ eternitatis decimo die Januarii* 1692.' The mausoleum which covers Job Charnock is the oldest piece of masonry in Calcutta. Slabs commemorating the noble surgeon William Hamilton, who died 1717, and Admiral Watson, are built into its walls.

The Old Mission Church has a peculiar interest as having been erected, 1767–1770, by Kiernander, the first Protestant missionary to Bengal, and at his own expense. In 1786, the good Swede found himself unable to defray the charges involved by his benevolent schemes, and the church was seized by the Sheriff. It was rescued and restored to religious purposes by Charles Grant, afterwards the well-known East Indian Director, who paid Rs. 10,000, the sum at which it was appraised. Kiernander came to Cuddalore, in Madras, as a Swedish missionary in 1740. Stripped of his property, and driven from the place on its capture by Count Lally, he took refuge at Tranquebar in 1758, and in the following year he arrived in Calcutta

After more than a quarter of a century's usefulness as a missionary in that city, his pecuniary circumstances compelled him to become Chaplain to the Dutch Settlement at Chinsura about 1787–88. He returned to Calcutta in 1795, and there died in 1799, at the age of 88. His humble 'Beth-Tephillah,' or House of Prayer, has now, under the name of the Old Mission Church, one of the largest congregations in Calcutta.

St. Andrew's Church, known as the Scotch Kirk, is a handsome Grecian building. It was commenced on St. Andrew's Day, 1815. Lord Moira, the Governor-General, with his lady, the Countess of Loudoun and Moira, attended in State, together with an imposing array of Masonic, military, and civic dignitaries. A feud, which for a time shook Calcutta to its centre, arose in regard to the spire. 'Bishop Middleton, the first Bishop of Calcutta, believed that the Church of England had a monopoly of spires.' Dr. Bryce, the Scotch pastor of the newly-founded St. Andrew's Kirk, determined to vindicate the claims of his Church and his nation to these ecclesiastical ornaments, by carrying his steeple some feet higher up than that of St. John, then the Cathedral Church, and by placing a cock on the top of it in order to crow over the Bishop.

The Roman Catholics have 8 churches, the most important of which are the Cathedral, the Church of the Sacred Heart, and St. Thomas'. The last-named is in connection with the Loretto Convent, which stands on the site of Sir Elijah Impey's famous house, between Middleton Street and Middleton Row.

The Húglí Bridge.—Calcutta, as described in the foregoing paragraphs, lies on the east or left bank of the river. It is, however, connected with the important railway suburb on the other side of the Húglí by a floating bridge. This structure, supported on enormous pontoons, is 1530 feet in length between the abutments, and has a massively-constructed roadway for carriages, 48 feet in width, with footpaths of 7 feet on either side. It was commenced in 1873, and opened for traffic in 1874, notwithstanding a serious collision with a large steamship, which the bore or tidal wave of the Húglí had wrenched from her moorings, and dashed against the unfinished bridge. It has cost £220,000, and a toll is levied on all traffic between Calcutta and Howrah, except in the case of passengers and goods proceeding to or from the East India Railway terminus on the Howrah side.

Population.—Calcutta may in one sense be said to extend across the Húglí, and to include Howrah on the western side of the river, as well as the suburban municipality on the east. The total population of the area thus defined was returned in 1881 at 789,864. But Calcutta proper, or the central portion, known as the Municipality or 'Town of Calcutta,' and lying, roughly speaking, between the old Maráthá Ditch and the Húglí, is governed by a distinct municipal body.

In 1710, the population was reckoned at from 10,000 to 12,000. In 1752, Mr. Holwell estimated the number of houses within its limits at 51,132, and the inhabitants at 409,056 persons; but both these estimates must have been far too high. In 1822, the number of inhabitants was returned at 179,917, or according to another calculation, 230,552; in 1831, at 187,081; in 1850, at 361,369; and in 1866 at 377,924. In 1872, the first regular Census taken under the supervision of the municipality returned the population of the town at 447,601; but as the results presented features of doubtful accuracy, another Census was taken in 1876, which gave the population of the town, excluding the suburbs, at 429,535. The latest enumeration, in 1881, returned the population of Calcutta, including Fort William and the Port of Calcutta, at 433,219, and the suburbs at 251,439, making a total of 684,658, exclusive of Howrah, or 789,864 with Howrah.

The Census of 1881 was taken simultaneously on the night of the 17th February by four distinct agencies. That of Calcutta proper, namely, the area included in the metropolitan municipality, was conducted by the municipality; that of Fort William, by the military authority; the enumeration of the floating and river population was under the immediate supervision of the Superintendent of the Port Police; while the operations in the suburbs were carried out under the superintendence of the Vice-Chairman of the Suburban Municipality. The total area of the town, including the Fort and Esplanade, but excluding the river, is 5037 acres, while that of the suburbs is computed at 14,413 acres, or nearly three times as large. The following table exhibits the population of the town and suburbs of Calcutta, within the above limits, on the night of the 17th February 1881:—

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF THE TOWN AND SUBURBS OF CALCUTTA, FEBRUARY 1881 (EXCLUSIVE OF HOWRAH).

	Area in acres.	Number of occupied houses.	Population.			Number of persons per acre.	Number of houses per acre.	Number of persons per occupied house.
			Total.	Males.	Females.			
Town of Calcutta,	3,754	34,534	401,671	257,778	143,893	106·99	10·33	11·59
Fort William .	1,283*	...	3,348	3,002	346	...	...	...
Port of Calcutta,	...	...	28,200	28,037	163	...	...	...
Total, . . .	5,037	34,534	433,219	288,817	144,402	106·99	10·33	11·59
Suburbs, . .	14,413	37,805	251,439	147,205	104,234	17·45	2·83	6·56
Grand Total, .	19,450	72,339	684,658	436,022	248,636	35·20	3·74	0·46

* Including the area of the Esplanade outside the Fort, the population of which, including the *maidán* (153) and the Presidency Jail (1182), have been returned as within the town proper.

Comparison with last Census.—Apart from the Fort and the Port, the population within the strictly municipal area of Calcutta, which was 409,036 in 1876, was returned at 401,671 in 1881, showing a decrease of 1·8 per cent.; the falling off varying in the different wards from 2·2 to nearly 21 per cent. Five wards show an increase varying from 3·9 to 13·9 per cent. Total decrease in certain wards, 13,553; total increase in others, 6188; net decrease, 7365. The variations in most instances are satisfactorily accounted for by the outward movements of the population in consequence of municipal or other improvements. As a rule, the tendency has been for the population to move back from the river bank, and from the centre of the town to the outskirts beyond the strictly municipal area. In the wards along the river bank, the improvement of the Strand Bank, and the removal of private residences or their conversion into warehouses for the storage of jute and other produce, account for a considerable decrease in the number of inhabitants. In some of the more central wards, too, there have been considerable municipal improvements, which have opened out the most crowded thoroughfares by new roads and clearances, and have had the effect of driving the people farther east into neighbouring wards. A slight increase in the Fort population is attributable partly to the fact that at the Census of 1881, a detachment of Native Cavalry was temporarily encamped here, and partly to the fact that in February 1881 several military headquarter offices were in the Fort, which in April 1876 were in the hills.

The port of Calcutta, including vessels proceeding up and down the river, which in 1872 contained a population of 17,696, had in 1881 a population of 28,200, showing an increase of 10,504 souls, or 59 per cent. The sea-going population numbered 6153, on board 192 vessels, either in port or proceeding up or down the river. The number of boats censused was 4220, with a population of 22,047 souls. Deducting vessels or boats censused before or after the date of the enumeration, the actual population of the port on the night of the 17th February 1881 was 21,342 souls, as compared with 17,696 on the night of the 6th April 1876. The increase in the shipping is partly explained by the difference in the time of the year at which the Census was taken; and an increase in the shipping naturally explains an increase in the number of boats. The port Census in 1881 also included a portion of the river north of the actual port limits, which was not included on the last occasion. Taking the population of the whole of Calcutta and the suburbs, the result shows a nominal decrease of 0·29 per cent. in 1881, as compared with the previous enumeration. The population within Calcutta may therefore be considered as stationary; but it must be remembered that the people tend to move outwards to the environs.

As regards accuracy, the Census officers report that there is no reason to doubt the correctness of the enumeration.

Religious and Caste Classification.—Of the total population of the town, port, and suburbs, 428,692, or 62 per cent., are Hindus; 221,013, or 32·2 per cent., are Muhammadans; 30,478, or 4·4 per cent., are Christians; 488 are Brahmos; 1705 Buddhists; 143 Jains; 986 Jews; 142 Pársís; 284 Sikhs; while 727 belong to other (chiefly aboriginal) religions. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans number 52,241, and Káyasths 52,351; these two castes numbering about one-fourth of the total Hindu population. Next to them come Kaibarttas, 34,262; Chamárs, skinners and leather workers, 21,501; Subarnabaniyás, goldsmiths and jewellers, 17,535; Tántís, weavers, 16,458; Vaishnavs, 15,765; Bagdís, 13,433; Gwálás, 12,274; Sadgops, 11,543; Kahárs, 11,041; Telís, 10,769; and Mehtars, 10,636. Of the 221,013 Muhammadans, no fewer than 213,334 are returned as of the Sunní sect. Among the Christian population, out of a total of 17,226 Protestants, 8768 returned themselves as members of the Church of England, 1869 as members of the Church of Scotland, 857 as Baptists, 692 as Methodists, 230 as Independents or Congregationalists, and 329 as Lutherans. Other Dissenters number 116. No less than 4365 persons returned themselves simply as Protestant, without further specification of sect, the majority of whom belong no doubt to the Church of England. Roman Catholics numbered 11,095; Armenians, 649; Greeks, 133; while 1297 persons have simply entered themselves as Christians, without any specification of sect. Unitarians and Theists were returned at 29; and Agnostics and 'others' at 49 in number. The Native Christian community numbered, in 1881, 4101, distributed among the following sects:—Roman Catholics, 1358; Church of England, 724; Scotch Church, 242; Baptists, 351; Methodists, 92; Congregationalists, 131; Plymouth Brethren, 8; other Protestants, 589; and sect not specified, 606.

The Governing Body, or Municipality of Calcutta, was created by Act vi. of 1863 (Bengal Council), and has been remodelled by subsequent legislation, on a basis of popular election. It consists of a body of Justices of the Peace or Commissioners, a certain number of whom are elected by the ratepayers, while the remainder are nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. The native element is largely represented in this body. A salaried chairman, selected by the Lieutenant-Governor from the Covenanted Civil Service, directs th whole, aided by a deputy chairman and other subordinates appointe by the Justices themselves. The Justices or Commissioners receive n pay. In 1882, the ordinary revenue of the municipality amounted t £270,712, of which the principal items were as follows:—House-rat £96,569; taxes, £45,018; water-rates and sale of water, £49,54

lighting rate, £24,586. The ordinary expenditure in the same year amounted to £226,560, of which £167,157 was debitable to the general fund, £37,025 to the water-rate fund, and £22,377 to the lighting of the town. Including capital account receipts, loans, suspense account, and cash balances, the total amount at the disposal of the Justices during the year was £599,119. The aggregate expenditure under both revenue and capital account amounted to £484,997. The total loan liabilities of the corporation on the 31st March 1883 amounted to £1,521,453, or deducting £233,114, the nominal value of the sinking fund on that date, to £1,288,338. The total length of roads in Calcutta at the end of 1882 was 160 miles, comprising 72½ miles of stone metalled roads, 64 miles of brick metalled roads, and 23½ miles of minor roads over sewered ditches. Expenditure on road repairs and construction in 1882, £25,232. A Tramway Company, subject to certain municipal rules and bye-laws, maintained at the end of 1882 a service along the principal roads and streets for a length exceeding 17 miles. The tramway has proved a great convenience to the public, and its lines of rail are being extended.

The Water-Supply forms the most important undertaking under the care of the municipality. The present system dates from 1865, when the sanction of Government was given to the construction of works which now pour upwards of eight million gallons a day of filtered water into the city. The source of supply is from the Húglí at Paltá, about 16 miles above Calcutta. The works there consist of two large suction pipes, 30 inches in diameter, through which the water is drawn from the river by three engines, each of 50 horse-power nominal. The water is then passed into six settling tanks, each 500 feet long by 250 feet wide. Here it is allowed to stand for 36 hours, when it is permitted to run off to the filters, eight in number, the area of each being 200 by 100 feet. After filtration, the water is made to flow over a marble platform, where its purity can be observed. It is then conducted to Calcutta by a 42-inch iron main. The main works were finished in 1870, and connected with pipes laid under 100 miles of streets. The total number of house connections up to December 31, 1874, was 8159; by 1882 they had increased to 14,245, with a constantly augmenting demand. The total quantity of filtered water delivered during 1874 amounted to 2,524,566 gallons. By 1882, the supply, owing to the increased demand, had risen to 2,855,970,421 gallons, or an average daily supply of 7,824,576 gallons, equal to eighteen gallons per head of the 'town,' port, and fort population. The demand is of course greatest in the hot weather; and in the quarter May–July 1883, an average daily quantity of 8,279,167 gallons, or nineteen gallons per head, was delivered in the city. Owing to the increasing wants of the town for filtered water for purely domestic purposes, it has been found

necessary to increase greatly the supply of unfiltered water for the watering of streets, flushing of sewers, building operations, etc., for which filtered water was formerly used. In 1883, a daily average of three million gallons of unfiltered water was pumped direct from the Húglí for these purposes. Still more powerful engines commenced work in 1884, just below the pontoon bridge. The total cost of filtered water supplied to the town amounted in 1882 to a fraction less than 4d. per thousand gallons, and of unfiltered water to 1d. per thousand gallons.

The Drainage Works are on an equally extensive scale. The main sewers are underground; and for the proper discharge of their contents in the direction of the Salt Lake, a pumping station is maintained at an annual cost of £3000. The system of underground drainage now (1883) virtually completed comprises 36·77 miles of main brick sewers, and 113·14 miles of pipe sewers; total length, 149·91 miles. In 1863, on the constitution of the present municipality, a health officer with a subordinate establishment was appointed. The practice of throwing corpses into the river has been stopped; and the burning *gháts* and burial-grounds have been placed under supervision. All refuse and night-soil are removed by the municipality by a special railway to the Salt Lake.

The city is lighted by a private gas company, under contract with the municipality, 4621 gas lamps and 140 oil lamps being paid for at the public expense (1882). The fire brigade consisted of two steam fire-engines and five hand-engines. Its annual cost is about £2000.

The Police of Calcutta is under the control of the Commissioner, who is also the Chairman of the Justices. Beneath him there is a Deputy Commissioner. The force consisted in 1882 of 4 superintendents, 219 subordinate officers of various grades, 1227 constables, and 6 mounted constables, maintained at a yearly cost of £42,389, of which Government contributed one-fourth. Several minor bodies, such as the river police, Fort police, preventive police, Government guards, etc., raise the entire strength of the force in the town and on the river to 2297 men. The great majority are natives, the number of European and Eurasian sergeants and constables being only 81. The Suburban police consisted in the same year of 2 superintendents, 60 subordinate officers of various grades, 654 constables, and 8 detective officers, maintained at a cost of £15,374, the cost being about equally divided between the municipality and the Government.

The Jails in Calcutta and the suburbs are the Presidency jail, with a total daily average prison population in 1881–82 of 75·14 Europeans and 1146·99 natives; the Alipur jail, with a daily average prison population of 1999·14; and the Rassa jail for females, with a daily average prison population of 175·15. The Alipur and Rassa jails are central prisons, and receive long-term convicts from other Districts.

The Statistics of Education in Calcutta in 1883 were as follows:—There were 4 Government colleges, namely, the Presidency College, founded in 1855, and attended by 383 pupils in the General Department and 11 in the Law Department; the Sanskrit College, established in 1824, attended by 57 pupils in the Upper and 195 in the Lower Division; the Calcutta Madrásá or Muhammadan College, founded in 1781, number of pupils 442; the Bethune Girls' School, with 4 pupils in the College Department. This last-named institution has passed two pupils at the examination of the Calcutta University for the degree of B.A. There were also 5 colleges mainly supported by missionary efforts, but aided by Government, which were attended by 951 pupils. The number of unaided colleges was 4, three of them under native management. These had an aggregate number of 653 pupils in the General and 404 in the Law Department. There were also the College of Engineering at Howrah, attended by 166 pupils; the Calcutta Medical College, with 126 pupils; the Government School of Art, with 96 pupils; and the Campbell Vernacular Medical School, with 140 pupils. The total number of schools in Calcutta reported on in 1883 by the Education Department was 291, with 25,124 scholars; 149 of them were for males, teaching 20,008 boys; the remaining 142 are for girls and Zenana ladies, teaching 5116 pupils. According to a different principle of classification, 82 schools taught English to 14,055 boys; 75 taught the vernacular only to 3521 boys; 119 were vernacular schools for girls, with 2848 pupils; and 3 were normal schools, instructing 68 male and 46 female teachers. Of the total number of pupils in these schools, 73·5 per cent. were returned as Hindus, 17·3 Christians, 7·5 Musalmáns, while the remaining 1·7 per cent. were of other persuasions. The total ascertained expenditure on colleges and special institutions was £58,746, and on schools of all classes £85,698, being a total of £144,444, of which the Government contributed £61,097.

The Medical Charities of Calcutta comprise the Medical College Hospital, the General Hospital, the Mayo Hospital (for natives only), the Campbell Hospital, the Municipal Police Hospital, the Howrah Hospital on the opposite side of the river, and minor dispensaries. In July 1882, the Eden Hospital for women and children was opened, to meet a want long felt in Calcutta. The General Hospital is confined almost solely to Europeans. The total amount contributed by Government to these institutions in 1882 was £23,224, or just under 63 per cent. of their total expenditure. The total number of persons treated in these institutions in 1882 was 20,579 in-door and 232,504 out-door patients, the proportion of deaths to patients treated being 143·73 per thousand. Cholera deaths in hospital in 1882 numbered 468 out of a total of 859 treated, or an average mortality of 54½ per cent. The

general hospital mortality is largely attributable to numerous admissions of moribund and hopeless cases in the Campbell and Howrah Hospitals. In 1882, the total number of deaths registered in Calcutta proper amounted to 13,177, or 30·4 per thousand of the population, as against a mean registered mortality of 29·4 per thousand in the preceding ten years. This increase is mainly due to cholera, to which 2240 deaths were attributed in 1882, as compared with a mean of 1341 during the previous years. The mortality from other diseases in 1882 was—diarrhœa and dysentery, 1454; fevers, 3618; small-pox, 17; other causes, 5848: total, 13,177.

Mortuary Returns are collected in Calcutta by the police inspectors, and compared with the registers kept by paid clerks of the municipality at the burning *ghâts* and burial-grounds. The death-rate among the Europeans in 1882 was 15·5 per thousand, among the Eurasians 45·5, among the Hindus 32·6, and among the Muhammadans 27·1. The general death-rate of the population was 30·4 per thousand. The highest death-rate was in January, November, and December, and the lowest in July and August. The rains are the healthiest season in Calcutta, because the two main causes of mortality, fever and cholera, are at a minimum during those months. A system of birth registration is also in operation in Calcutta; but the returns, although slowly improving year by year, greatly understate the facts, and there is no doubt that a considerable number of births escape registration.

The Mean Temperature of Calcutta is about 79° F. The highest temperature recorded during the last 24 years is 106° in the shade, and the lowest 52·7°. The extreme range is therefore a little over 53°; while the mean temperatures of December and May, the coldest and hottest months, are 68·0° and 86·1° respectively. The average temperature in 1882 was a fraction below the mean, ranging from a minimum mean of 67·7 in January to a maximum of 83·8 in June. The average rainfall during 48 years has been 66·38 inches,—the highest rainfall on record being 93·31 inches in 1871, and the lowest 43·61 inches in 1837. The rainfall in 1882 was just equal to the average, 66·18 inches. By far the greater part of the rain falls between the months of June and October.

Cyclones.—Like the rest of the seaboard of the Bay of Bengal Calcutta is exposed to periodical cyclones, which do much mischie Terrible storms are recorded as having swept across Calcutta in th last century, throwing down houses and flooding the city. The tempe of which perhaps the best scientific observations exist is that of 186 The greatest pressure of the wind registered has been 50 lbs. to the squa foot. In the storms of 1864 and 1867, the anemometer was blow away. A great loss of life and property was caused along the Húglí the storm of October 5, 1864. In Calcutta and its suburbs, 49 perso

were killed and 16 wounded, 102 brick houses were destroyed and 563 severely damaged; 40,698 tiled and straw huts were levelled with the ground. The destruction of shipping in the port of Calcutta appears greatly to have exceeded that on record in any previous storm. Out of 195 vessels only 23 remained uninjured, and 31, with an aggregate tonnage of 27,653 tons, were totally wrecked. On November 2, 1867, the force of the wind was not less violent, but there was no storm wave, and consequently the amount of damage done was much less.

The Port of Calcutta, extending 10 miles along the Húglí, with an average width of working channel of 250 yards, and with moorings for 169 vessels, is under the management of a body of 9 European gentlemen styled 'Commissioners for making Improvements in the Port of Calcutta.' This body was constituted in 1870, and has since that date received considerable additions to its powers. In 1871, they were also appointed 'Bridge Commissioners,' to take charge of the floating bridge then being constructed over the Húglí, and to work it when completed. This bridge, finished in 1874, now supplies a permanent connection between Calcutta and the railway terminus on the Howrah side of the river. As already stated, it is constructed on pontoons, and affords a roadway for foot travellers and vehicles. A section of it is opened at fixed hours, on certain days of the week, so as to allow vessels to pass up the Húglí beyond it. The main duty of the Port Commissioners consists in providing accommodation, by jetties and warehouses, for the shipping and native boats, which carry on the great and increasing trade of Calcutta. In October 1881, the Port Commissioners were invested with further powers and responsibilities as conservators of the port approaches, and with the control of the port establishment, lighthouses, lightships, and harbour vessels.

These new powers extend the supervision of the Port Commissioners down the whole length of the Húglí to the sea. The condition of the Húglí channels has attracted their serious attention, and a project has been revived for supplementing the Húglí approach to Calcutta by another water-way from the south-east. In 1864–66, it was proposed to make Port Canning, on the Matlá river, a subsidiary port to Calcutta; and a railway of 28 miles was constructed to connect the two points. This scheme failed, however, to attain any commercial success (*see* Port Canning). The growing commerce of Calcutta, and the necessity of providing for the safe storage of the great imports of kerosine and mineral oils beyond the limits of the port, have led to the reconsideration of the Matlá project. It is now proposed that a ship canal should take off from that river and debouch on the Húglí near the Kidderpur dockyard, within the limits of the Port of Calcutta. An alternative water-way would thus be supplied for the

commerce of the capital. Calcutta would no longer be dependent upon the shifting channels of the Húglí; and Port Canning would afford a place of storage for the mineral oils whose increasing importation has become a source of danger to the crowded shipping in the Calcutta Port, notwithstanding the precautions adopted to land that explosive material below its limits. The expense of the scheme will be great; and its consideration by Government has not yet arrived at a stage when it would be safe to predict the issue. A decision will probably be come to before I reach the articles MATLA RIVER and PORT CANNING (*q.v.*).

Shipping and Tonnage of Calcutta.—In 1727, the whole shipping of the port was estimated at 10,000 tons. In 1759, 30 vessels sailed from Calcutta, aggregating 3964 tons burthen. During the 11 months ending April 1812, the total trade, both export and import, amounted to 9½ millions sterling, carried on by 600 vessels aggregating 150,000 tons. The number of vessels arriving and departing in 1861–62 was 1793, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,337,632 tons; in 1873–74, the number of vessels was 1927, tonnage 2,437,447; while in 1881–82, an aggregate of 2132 vessels arrived and departed, with a total tonnage of 3,582,989 tons. The number of steamers, especially of steamers passing through the Suez Canal, is greatly on the increase; in 1881–82, the arrivals of steamers at Calcutta numbered 239.

Foreign Sea-borne Commerce.—The growth of the trade of Calcutta is shown by the following figures:—In 1820–21, the total value of foreign exports and imports, including treasure, was £10,454,910; in 1830–31, £8,756,382; in 1840–41, £15,202,697; in 1850–51, £18,754,025; in 1860–61, £31,794,671; in 1870–71, £49,316,738; in 1874–75, £54,288,555; and in 1881–82, over 55¾ millions. The value of the customs duties (including salt) was in 1820–21, £151,817; in 1830–31, £121,321; in 1840–41, £495,515; in 1850–51, £1,038,365; in 1860–61, £2,270,654; in 1870–71, £3,548,926. The practical abolition of the customs tariff renders a comparison of 1881 and 1871 of no value. About 95½ per cent. of the foreign import trade of Bengal, and 97·8 per cent. of the foreign export trade, are carried on through Calcutta. A decline to the extent of nearly £2,000,000 took place in the imports of 1881–82, as compared with those of the previous year, owing to the reduced receipts of cotton goods. This was mainly due to excessive importations in 1880–81, and not to any falling off in the general standard of comfort, the maintenance of which is indicated by the fact that the imports of gold were higher by £40,000 in 1881–82 than in 1880–81. The export foreign trade during 1881–82 amounted to £33,526,111, showing an advance of £557,694, or 1·6 per cent., over the previous year. An increase of £837,241 took place in the exports of Indian free merchandise, and a decrease of £251,980 in rice, although the quantit

exported was greater by 21,000 tons than in the preceding year. Had the prices of 1880–81 been maintained, the total exports of all kinds from Calcutta would have been higher by nearly £1,000,000 than in that year.

The fluctuations in the foreign trade of Calcutta during 1881–82 may be thus summarised. In the trade with the United Kingdom a falling off of 1·78 per cent. took place, owing mainly to the decline in the importation of piece-goods. In metals there was a decline of about £185,000; and candles, precious stones, umbrellas, and woollen goods all fell off to some extent. Among the exports to Great Britain, jute, tea, and wheat showed an increase; while linseed, raw cotton, rice, and indigo declined. One-half of the falling off in the trade with Hong-Kong, which amounted to nearly £600,000, was partly balanced by an increase of £300,000 in the trade with the Treaty Ports. Larger importations of Californian silver from Hong-Kong account for the greater part of the increased imports from that port. Imports from the United States, which fell off by about £80,000 in 1880–81, improved during the year by about £70,000, due almost entirely to large arrivals of kerosine oil. A further decline of about £50,000 took place in the exports to America, which in 1880–81 were nearly £600,000 behind those of the previous year, owing in great part to the substitution of machine-made ice for the imported commodity. The exports of indigo were low in 1880–81, owing possibly to the fear of the production of artificial indigo, which checked the operations of speculators; and the possibility of the ultimate substitution of artificial dye for the natural product is a contingency which it behoves planters to carefully bear in mind. The trade with the Straits Settlements amounted to £2,171,841, being larger by £39,178 than in the previous year, almost the whole of the increase being due to the exports of opium, gunny-bags, and rice. A slight fall of £25,000 occurred in the trade with France, which, however, was still higher than in 1879–80 by £430,000. The decline was mainly due to the large imports of silk goods in 1880–81, which had to some extent overstocked the market. Exports of manufactured Indian silks to France increased, and there were large increases in the exports of wheat and jute. A satisfactory advance occurred in the trade with Australia. The advance in the exports of tea, which amounted to £57,000, may be regarded as an indication of a further development of the taste for Indian tea in Australia, which, with care on the part of the growers, will probably result in the establishment in those colonies of a large permanent market for the consumption of one of the most important products of British India. The trade of Calcutta passing through the Suez Canal, though showing some falling off in 1881–82 as compared with 1880–81, was yet larger than in any year previous to 1880. The value of both imports and exports carried by this route

in 1881–82 was £32,489,491, and there was an increase of one per cent. in the proportion of foreign trade using the canal. The following paragraphs show the extent and value of the different staples of Calcutta foreign trade.

Imports.—Imports of cotton twist and yarn in 1881–82 amounted to 14,221,951 lbs., valued at £1,164,585, a considerable decline on 1880–81, which was mainly due, as stated above, to excessive importations in the latter year. Cotton goods first became an important article of import in 1824. Metals were imported in 1881–82 to the value of £1,734,191, showing a decline on the imports of 1880–81, chiefly in the case of copper and zinc. Malt liquor was imported in 1881–82 to the extent of 540,818 gallons, valued at £131,902. Imports of spirits declined from £257,851 in 1880–81 to £246,445 in 1882. The importation of all kinds of wines and liqueurs has fallen of late years. The total import of liquors of all kinds in 1877–78 was £672,049, of which 23·2 per cent. was malt liquor, 44·9 per cent. spirits, and 31·7 per cent. wines and liqueurs. In 1881–82 the amount had decreased to £549,122, of which malt liquors contributed 24 per cent., spirits 44·8 per cent., and wines 31 per cent. A great increase has taken place in recent years in the importation of machinery into India, mainly due to the extension of manufacturing industry. The value of imported railway material rose from £187,497 in 1880–81, to £303,790 in 1881–82, the advance being entirely under the head of materials for construction, mainly for the Central Bengal Railway, the Assam Railway, and the Tirhut State Railway. That mineral oils are rapidly taking the place of vegetable oils for lighting purposes, is evident from the fact that, while 1,242,708 gallons, valued at £102,468, were imported in 1877–78, no less than 5,776,610 gallons, valued at £275,133, were imported in 1881–82. American petroleum has almost entirely driven the produce of other countries out of the market. Drugs showed an increase, owing to a rise in arrivals of quinine; total value of drug imports in 1881–82, £181,652. Silk imports showed a considerable falling off, owing to overstocking in previous years, the imports in 1881–82 being only 56,082 lbs., as against 168,417 lbs. in 1880–81. The import of coral also declined, owing, it is said, to overstocking of the market by the Sicilian coral fishermen, whose poverty prevented them from holding back for a rise in prices. Umbrellas form an important article of import, the number received being 1,345,848 in 1881–82. Tea imports from Hong-Kong amounted to 161,728 lbs., from the Straits Settlements to 422,894 lbs., and from other places 6613 lbs., total 591,235 lbs., against 343,459 lbs. in 1880–81, and 542,433 lbs. in 1879–80.

Exports.—The jute trade made a considerable advance,—from 5,367,855 cwts. in 1880–81 to 6,896,610 cwts. in 1881–82,—increased

quantities having been taken by all the countries with which the trade is carried on, except Austria. The export to the United Kingdom, which expanded by nearly one million cwts., is believed, however, to have overstocked the market. A large local demand slightly kept down the export of gunny-bags, the value of which in consequence fell from £1,065,526 in 1880–81 to £1,063,666. The principal falling off occurred in the exports to the United States and England, while some increase took place in the exports to China, the Straits Settlements, and Australia. Although the value of rice exported in 1881–82 was lower than in 1880–81, the decline was solely due to a falling in price arising from an abundant harvest; the amount actually shipped having been 6,350,092 cwts. in 1881–82, against 5,948,208 cwts. in the preceding year. The quantity and value of wheat exported rose from 3,955,269 cwts., valued at £1,512,695, in 1880–81, to 6,666,896 cwts., valued at £2,520,329, in 1881–82. Except Malta, all countries importing wheat from India took a larger quantity than the previous year, the causes assigned being a deficient harvest and speculation in the United States. The exports of tea during 1881–82 increased by over two millions of pounds, or 4½ per cent. over the exports in 1881–82, while there was an advance of £530,000, or 17·8 per cent., in the total value, in consequence of a rise in prices. The total exports amounted to £3,528,863 in 1881–82. The finer grades of tea are reported to have been produced in a greater proportion than usual, and it is evident that the taste for Indian tea of a good quality is becoming firmly established in England. Lower qualities of tea also sold at improved prices. Tea exports to Australia increased from 776,852 lbs. in 1880–81 to 871,913 lbs. in 1881–82, or by 12½ per cent.; 195,686 lbs. were exported to the United States. Exports of indigo showed an increase over the two previous years. With the exception of rape-seed, of which 974,570 cwts. were shipped in 1881–82, against 824,509 cwts. in 1880–81, all exports of oil-seeds showed a decline during the year, the falling off being most marked in the case of linseed, of which the shipments amounted to 2,864,116 cwts., against 4,065,341 cwts. in 1880–81. The large yield of the American cotton crop resulted in a falling off of the exports of raw cotton from Bengal from 875,697 cwts. in 1880–81 to 702,336 cwts. in 1881–82. With the exception of Austria and Italy, the demand of all countries importing Bengal cotton has declined. A considerable decrease in the number of undressed hides and skins exported took place during the year, owing probably to a diminished supply rather than to a falling off in the demand. Dressed skins and hides showed an increase, but the total exports were about 500,000 below those of 1880–81. Exports of lac of all kinds rose from 86,647 cwts., valued at £575,549, in 1880–81, to 116,205 cwts., valued at £716,101, in 1881–82. Shell-lac formed nearly three-fourths of the total exports, and button-lac

the greater part of the remainder. Exports of raw silk fell both in value and quantity, but shipments of silk piece-goods remained comparatively stationary. Bengal silk is not in a position to compete with the silks produced in Europe, China, or Japan. A slight increase, from 9460 cwts. to 16,133 cwts., in the export of sugar, when taken with the fact that imports from the Mauritius, the Straits Settlements, and Java fell from 42,904 cwts. to 4079 cwts., shows fairly conclusively that the Indian demand is now supplied almost entirely by local production, and there is no reason to doubt that an expansion of the industry would be met by an increased demand for Indian sugar abroad. A considerable falling off took place in the exports of tobacco, which declined from 7,853,118 lbs., valued at £42,980, in 1880–81, to 4,782,384 lbs., valued at £33,497.

Treasure.—The imports of gold in 1881–82 amounted to £999,349, and of silver to £922,789, against £890,024 of gold and £944,674 of silver in 1880–81; while silver amounting to £214,566 was exported in 1881–82, against £220,101 in 1880–81.

Coasting Trade.—The value of the Calcutta coasting trade in 1881–82 was as follows: Imports—Indian produce, £2,322,008; foreign merchandise, £186,064: total, £2,508,072. Exports—Indian produce, £3.360,137; foreign merchandise, £1,228,100: total, £4,588,237. Grand total of coasting imports and exports in 1881–82, £7,096,309, or £34,047 less than in 1880–81. The falling off in the imports was confined to trade with Bombay, about £40,000; British Burma, over £160,000; and ports outside British India, nearly £30,000. The imports from Madras and from the Bengal out-ports rose during 1881–82 to about £30,000 and £35,000 respectively over 1880–81. Decreased importations of piece-goods, railway sleepers, cutch, and gambier, account for the falling off in the imports from Bombay and Burma. The increase in the trade with Madras and the Bengal out-ports was due to larger arrivals of timber and hides. The chief remaining fluctuations in the import trade were an increase of £87,500 in raw cotton from Bombay and teak timber from Maulmain, and a decline of £95,000 in castor-oil seed from Coconada and Masulipatam, and of £40,000 in raw cotton from Madras. The low price of rice caused a decline in the value of the imports of that staple from the Orissa ports. Cotton twist and yarn of Indian manufacture imported into Calcutta, rose from £271,821 in 1880–81 to £282,655 in 1881–82; and Indian piece-goods fell from £211,047 to £126,603. The piece-goods imported coastwise consisted almost entirely of yarn of 32's and under, and the decline was due more to the absence of demand than to the competition of English manufactures with Indian goods of these coarse textures. Exports of Indian produce coastwise showed an increase in the case of Bombay, Sind, and British Burma, and of ports not situated in British

India, but declined in the case of Madras and the Bengal out-ports, the net result being an increase of about £300,000. In foreign commodities, the most noticeable feature in the export coasting trade was the falling off in the exports of cotton piece-goods and twist to Madras and Burma, which is accounted for in the former case by the successful competition of European manufactures, and in the latter by the substitution of country-dyed for foreign twist.

The Customs duties on cotton piece-goods, as well as on most other imports, were finally abolished in 1882, only the duties on wines and spirits, arms and ammunition, and a few other articles being retained on the tariff. For practical purposes, Calcutta is now a free port.

The Landward Trade of Calcutta is conducted partly by railway, and partly by water. There is no railway station within the limits of the municipality, but three separate lines have their termini in its immediate neighbourhood. The East Indian Railway, whose terminus is across the river at Howrah, brings down the produce of the North-Western Provinces and Behar, and connects Calcutta with the general railway system of the Peninsula. The Eastern Bengal Railway and the South-Eastern Railway have their terminus at Siáldah, an eastern suburb of Calcutta. The Eastern Bengal Railway is an important line running across the Delta to the junction of the Ganges and Brahmaputra at Goálandá, now continued towards Dárjíling by the Northern Bengal State line. The South-Eastern Railway is a short railway, connecting the metropolis with Port Canning, in the Sundarbans (28 miles). It has a branch to Diamond Harbour, on the Húglí, 38 miles by rail, and about 41 miles by water from Calcutta. The three chief lines of water traffic are—(1) the Calcutta canals, a chain of channels and rivers passing round and through the Sundarbans, open at all seasons of the year, and affording the main line of communication with the Ganges and the Brahmaputra; (2) the Nadiyá rivers, three in number, which branch off in a southern course from the Ganges, above its junction with the Brahmaputra, and ultimately become the Húglí — these Nadiyá rivers are with difficulty navigable during the dry season; (3) the Midnapur and Hijili canals, leading south towards Orissa. The import trade, which thus finds its way from the interior into Calcutta, exclusive of opium and railway materials, was valued at £46,424,319 in 1881–82. Over 11 millions sterling were brought by country boats, nearly $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions by river steamers, $21\frac{3}{4}$ millions by the East Indian Railway, 5 millions sterling by the Eastern Bengal Railway, nearly £90,000 by the South-Eastern Railway, and over $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions sterling by road. The export trade from Calcutta into the interior of the country was valued in 1881–82 at £27,841,540. Of goods thus sent inland, $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions

sterling went by country boats, $1\frac{1}{3}$ million by river steamers, nearly 16 millions by the East Indian Railway, $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions by the Eastern Bengal Railway, £15,000 by the South-Eastern Railway, and $1\frac{3}{4}$ million by road. Total value of inland import and export trade of Calcutta in 1881–82, $74\frac{1}{4}$ millions sterling.

The gross value of the landward, seaward, and coasting trade of Calcutta, imports and exports, amounted to 140 millions sterling in 1881–82. In this aggregate many transactions are included twice: but, on the other hand, large supplies are daily drawn from the surrounding Districts which cannot be registered, and which therefore do not enter into the above total.

Cálián (*Cháliyam*).—Site of an old town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency, which arose out of a factory built by the first Portuguese settlers. The railway station of BEYPUR is at or near the spot where the factory stood.

Calián.—Town, Thána District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KALYAN.

Calicut (*Kolikódu*).—*Táluk* in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Area, 339 square miles, containing 1 town and 38 villages. Houses, 34,751. Population (1881) 205,962, namely, 103,669 males and 102,293 females. Land revenue (1882–83) £13,057. The Sub-division contains 3 civil and 4 criminal courts. Chief town, CALICUT.

Calicut (*Kolikódu; Koli-kukkuga*, 'Cock-crowing;' *Kolikotta*, 'Cock-fort').—Town and port in the Calicut *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency; situated on the sea-coast 6 miles north of Beypur, in the midst of extensive palm-groves. Lat. 11° 15′ N., long. 75° 49′ E. Houses, 8540. Population (estimated at 20,000 in 1827) had risen by 1881 to 57,085, namely, 33,875 Hindus, 20,257 Muhammadans—all Moplas (Máppillás), 2909 Christians, and 43 'others.' Of the adult male population, about 32 per cent. are Tiyars or toddy-drawers, 20 per cent. boat-builders and boatmen, and 14 per cent. Lubbay traders. The municipal income for 1880–81 was £4675, and the allotment for sanitary purposes, £637; the incidence of municipal taxation, including tolls, being about 1s. $3\frac{3}{4}$d. per head. Value of exports in 1880–81, including those of the sub-port of Beypur, £664,220; imports, £343,126. As the head-quarters of the rich and populous District of Malabár, Calicut contains the chief revenue, magisterial, and judicial establishments of the District, with Government and marine offices, a customs house, jail, lunatic asylum, dispensary, hospitals, post and telegraph offices, travellers' bungalow, and bank. The Anglican, Lutheran, and Roman Catholic Churches have missions here, with schools; in addition to which there is the municipal school, and several others, assisted by grants.

Owing to frequent Mopla outrages, a detachment of European infantry was stationed at Calicut in 1849. It was removed to th

outpost at Malápuram in 1851, but again brought back on the assassination of the Collector (Mr. Conolly) in 1855. The barracks stand to the north of the town, where also is the old Portuguese quarter with a Roman Catholic church built by the Zamorin and presented to Portugal in 1525, and a convent. The southern portion contains the timber depôt (*Kalláyi*) and the Muhammadan quarter, above which lie the sea-customs and salt offices, the lighthouse and mercantile houses, facing the sea. Round the Mánánchira tank, a fine reservoir of fresh water, are grouped the chief public offices and many important buildings. The suburbs consist of detached villages joining Calicut to Beypur, and surrounded with groves of palm, mango, and jack (Artocarpus) trees. The climate is fairly healthy, and, the soil being sandy, the deficiency of artificial drainage is not injuriously felt. The birth-rate in 1880–81 was 36·6, and the death-rate 26·2 per 1000. The average annual rainfall is 120 inches.

The foundation of Calicut is traditionally ascribed to Cherámán Perumál, the lord of Malabár, whose conversion to Islám and departure for Mecca figures so prominently in the legends of the country. On Cherámán's subsequent retirement to Mecca, Calicut was granted by him to Mana Vikrama, the 'Sámúri' or Zamorin. Tradition derives the name from the device employed for deciding the limits of the settlement—so much as the crowing of a cock in the Tali Temple could be heard over. The present town dates from the 13th century, and has given its name to the cloth known to the Portuguese as calicute, to the English as calico. The Zamorins rose to great power, extending their dominions, with the aid of the Moors or Moplas, both south and east; and the capital is described by the earliest Portuguese visitors as containing many magnificent buildings. The Moplas, so conspicuous in local history, are the descendants of Arab traders—13 in number, according to their own traditions—who settled in the 9th century at Cháliam on the Beypur river.

Calicut is celebrated as having been the first port in India visited by Europeans, the Portuguese adventurer Covilham having landed here about 1486. In 1498, Vasco da Gama arrived at Calicut, but at the instigation of the Mopla traders he was inhospitably received by the Zamorin. In 1501, Pedralvarez Cabral established a factory, which was immediately afterwards destroyed by the Moplas, and the whole colony of 50 persons massacred. Cabral bombarded the town; and in the following year Da Gama returned to complete the punishment, destroying all the shipping in the roadstead, and laying all the houses in ruins within range of his guns. In 1510, Albuquerque again attacked Calicut, burnt the Zamorin's palace, and wrecked the town; but the natives, rallying in overwhelming force, drove him back to Cochin with great loss. Three years later, the Zamorin made peace with the Portu-

[Portug]uese, who at once erected a factory, the origin of the present establishment. The French settlement dates from 1722, since which year it has been three times in British possession. In 1819 it was finally restored to the French, who still hold a few houses and the land adjoining. The Danish Government established a factory in 1752. It was partially destroyed in 1784, and soon after incorporated in the British settlement. An unsuccessful attempt was made in 1792 to re-establish the claims of Denmark. The first British settlement dates from 1616; but it was not until the treaty of Seringapatam, in 1792, that the Company acquired any sovereign rights. Between those dates Calicut was often conspicuous in history. In 1695, Captain Kidd ravaged the port; and in 1766, when Haidar Ali invaded Malabár, the Zamorin shut himself up in his palace and set fire to it, dying with his family in the flames. In 1773, and again in 1788, the town was pillaged by the Mysore armies. In 1790, the British troops occupied the town, holding it till the peace two years later. Since then it has been steadily advancing in trade and population; and, with the exception of fanatical Mopla outbreaks, the public peace has been undisturbed.

Calimere Point (the *Calligicum* of Ptolemy).—A low promontory in Tanjore District, forming the most southerly point of the Coromandel Coast, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 18′ N., long. 79° 52′ E. The point ought not to be approached within 5½ or 6 fathoms. A pagoda, called Calimere Pagoda, in lat. 10° 22′ N., long. 79° 51′ E., stands about a mile from the shore, and 5½ miles to the north-north-west of the southern extremity of the point. From this pagoda, the direction of the coast is about north ½ west to Negapatam; distance, 37 miles;—all the land in this space is low and planted with cocoa-nut trees.

Calinga.—Ancient Division of India in Madras Presidency.—*See* KALINGA.

Calingapatam.—Town and port in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KALINGAPATAM.

Callayi.—Seaport town, Madras Presidency.—*See* KALLAYI.

Calventura (*Hnet-taung*, or 'Bird's feather').—A group of rocks off the coast of Arakan, in British Burma, forming two divisions bearing from each other north-west and south-east, and distant 5 or 6 miles. The north-west group (lat. 16° 55′ N., long. 94° 15′ 30″ E.) consists of seven irregular black rocks, one of which resembles an old church with a mutilated spire. The south-east division consists of two high rocky islands covered with vegetation, and connected by a reef with 5 to 7 fathoms of water upon it. About half-way between the islands there is a single rock, dry at low tide.

Camalapur.—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KAMALAPUR.

Cambáy (*Khambhát*).—Feudatory State within the Political Agency of Kaira, Bombay Presidency; lying at the head of the gulf of the same name in the western part of the Province of Gujarát, between 22° 9′ and 22° 41′ N. lat., and between 72° 20′ and 73° 5′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the British District of Kaira; east by the lands of Borsad in Kaira, and Pitlád belonging to Baroda; south by the Gulf of Cambay; and west by the Sábarmati river, separating it from Ahmadábád District. Area, 350 square miles, containing 2 towns and 83 villages; population (1881) 86,074, namely, 70,708 Hindus, 12,417 Muhammadans, and 2949 'others.' The boundaries of the State are very irregular; some villages belonging to the Gáekwár of Baroda and to the British Government are entirely surrounded by Cambay territory, while Cambay villages are found in Kaira District. The country is flat and open, interspersed here and there, generally in the vicinity of the villages, with groves of fine trees, such as the mango, tamarind, banian or *bar*, *ním*, and *pípal*. From the position of the State between two large tidal rivers, the soil is so soaked with salt that water becomes brackish at a little distance below the surface, and in many places new wells have to be sunk every five years. Besides being brackish, Cambay well water is unwholesome, often causing painful boils when incautiously used.

Towards the north and west the soil is generally black, and well suited for the cultivation of wheat and cotton. To the east it is fit only for the growth of inferior sorts of grain, abundant crops of which are grown in favourable years. The cultivators are principally dependent on the monsoon rains for the means of irrigation, there being but few wells. The supply of drinking water is chiefly drawn from ponds or reservoirs, in which water is found throughout the greater part of the year. Near the city of Cambay skirting the shore of the gulf, and along the banks of the Máhi and Sábarmati rivers, stretch vast tracts of salt marsh land submerged at high spring-tides. Nodular limestone or *kankar* mixed with sand and clay is found in large quantities from 10 to 15 feet below the surface of the soil. Although not of the best quality, the lime obtained from this stone is used by the people of the country for building and other purposes. There are no forests. Agricultural products consist of the ordinary varieties of millet and pulse, rice, wheat, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and a little opium. The cultivation of indigo has of late years greatly fallen off. The chief wild animals are the *nilgái* (Portax pictus), wild hog, and large herds of antelopes that feed on the short herbage on salt marsh lands near the sea-coast. During the cold weather every pond swarms with duck, teal, and snipe.

The population consists of the various Hindu castes found throughout Guzerát, including the wild tribes of Kolís and Wagris; Muhammadans, Jains, and Pársís. The languages used are Gujaráthí and Hindustání.

The chief articles of manufacture are indigo, salt, cloth, carpets, embroidery, and carved cornelians, which are imported from Ratanpur and other places in the Rájpípla State. The chocolate-coloured stone is brought from Káthiáwár; agates come from Kapadwanj and Sukaltirth on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, and from Rájkot in Káthiáwár. The total imports 1877–78, consisting chiefly of molasses, timber, clarified butter, grain, cornelians, metal, piece-goods, silk, cocoa-nuts, and sugar were valued at £131,730; and the exports of tobacco, wrought cornelians, and sundries, at £90,017. In 1878, the shipping of the port of Cambay amounted in all to 566 vessels of a total burthen of 10,000 tons. Ships of more than 50 tons never visit Cambay. There are no made roads within the limits of the Cambay territory. The mode of transit into the interior is by native carts, camels, or pack-bullocks. For communication by water, except during the monsoon months, boats of under 6 tons at ordinary tides, and under 50 tons at spring tides, ply between Cambay and Bombay, Surat, Broach, Gogo, and other ports. The head of the gulf forms neither a safe nor commodious harbour, in consequence of the constant shifting of its bed from the force of the tides and the currents of the rivers Máhi and Sábarmati.

The name Cambay or Khambhát is said to be derived from *khámbha* or *stambhatirth*, the pool of Mahádeva under the form of the pillar god. Cambay is mentioned by Masudi (913); but the prosperity of the city is traditionally referred to the grant of its present site to a body of Bráhmans in 997. During the 11th and 12th centuries, Cambay appears as one of the chief ports of the Anhelwára kingdom; and at the conquest of that kingdom by the Musalmáns in 1297, it is said to have been one of the richest towns in India.

According to Lieutenant Robertson's *Historical Narrative of Cambay*, the Pársís of Gujarát sailed from Persia about the end of the 7th or beginning of the 8th century. A great number of their ships foundered in a storm, and only a few arrived at Sejam, about 70 miles south of Surat. They obtained permission to land after some difficulty, and on certain conditions; the chief of which were—that they should speak the Guzeráthí language, and abstain from beef. The Pársís remained for many years in the vicinity of Sejam, pursuing a coasting trade; but eventually they spread over the neighbouring Districts, and became so numerous at Cambay that they outnumbered the original inhabitants and took possession of the town. After a short period, however, they were driven out with great slaughter by the Hindus, who held the territory until conquered by the Muhammadans in 1297.

In the 15th century, with the growing wealth and power of the Gujarát kingdom, Cambay regained its former prosperity, and at the beginning of the 16th century formed one of the chief centres of commerce in India

During the time of the Muhammadan Kings of Gujarát, Cambay was in a most flourishing condition. Large vessels unloaded their cargoes at Gogo, whence they were sent in small craft to Cambay. The passage between the two ports was so quick as to become proverbial. The founder of the present family of Cambay rulers was Momin Khán, the last but one of the Muhammadan governors of Guzerát. While he held the office of Governor, his son-in-law, Nizám Khán, had charge of Cambay. On Momin Khán's death in 1742, his son Muftukhár Khán basely compassed the death of Nizám Khán, and assumed the government of Cambay. The Maráthá leaders had already partitioned Gujarát; but Muftukhár Khán successfully resisted the claims of the Peshwá to tribute, until, by the treaty of Bassein, Cambay was ceded to the British Government. The principal item of this disputed tribute consisted of a nominal half-share in the sea and land customs, deducting cost of collection. The British Government found much difficulty in inducing the Nawáb to revise the complicated and onerous tariff of sea customs, which was highly injurious to trade; but, in 1856, an arrangement was made by which the methods of collection are assimilated to those obtaining in civilised countries.

The ruler is a Muhammadan of the Shiá sect. His position is that of a feudatory of the British Government. He has received a *sanad*, guaranteeing any succession to his State that may be legitimate according to Muhammadan law. He has first-class jurisdiction, having power to try for capital offences any persons except European British subjects, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. Tribute is paid to the British Government of £2595 in cash, exclusive of collections on account of customs and excise. The military force consists of 200 cavalry and 900 foot, for the most part undisciplined. The police of the State number 337. The annual gross revenue in 1880–81, inclusive of transit duties on all goods, Indian and foreign, was estimated at £42,613. Public instruction is conducted by 2 public and 28 private indigenous schools, with 291 pupils in the former, and 753 in the latter.

Being within the influence of the sea-breezes, the climate of Cambay is generally milder and more equable than that of the interior of Gujarát. The most prevalent diseases are fever and dysentery. The average yearly rainfall is returned at 29·30 inches.

Cambay (*Khambhát*).—Chief town in the Native State of Cambay, Province of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; situated at the head of the Gulf of Cambay, on the north of the estuary of the river Máhi. Lat. 22° 18′ 30″ N., long. 72° 40′ E. Distant 52 miles south of Ahmadábád, and 202 miles west of Mhau (Mhow). Population (1881) 36,007, namely, 25,314 Hindus, 8038 Muhammadans, 2525 Jains, 8 Christians, 119 Pársís, and 3 'others.' The city was originally surrounded by a brick wall perforated for musketry, flanked with irregular towers without

fosse or esplanade; but the works are now out of repair, and few of the guns mounted are serviceable. Only portions of the wall remain, enclosing a circumference of not more than 3 miles. The palace of the Nawáb is in good repair, but built in an inferior style of architecture. The Jamá Masjíd was erected in 1325 A.D., in the time of Muhammad Sháh; the pillars in the interior were taken from desecrated Jain temples, and, though arranged without much attention to architectural effect, give the mosque a picturesque appearance. Many ruins still attest the former wealth of Cambay. It is mentioned, under the name of Cambaet, as a place of great trade by Marco Polo (*circ.* 1293), and by his countryman and contemporary, Marino Sanudo, as one of the two great trading ports of India (Cambeth).

The commercial decline of this once flourishing mart is due in great measure to the silting up of the gulf, and to the 'bore' or rushing tide in the north of the gulf, and at the entrances of the Máhi and Sábarmati (Savarnamati) rivers. High spring-tides rise and fall as much as 33 feet, and the current runs at a velocity of from 6 to 7 knots an hour. In ordinary springs the rise and fall is 25 feet, and the current $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 knots. Great damage is thus frequently caused to shipping, the more as the average depth of the channel is only from 4 to 6 fathoms; and the hazard is greatly increased by the constantly-shifting shoals, caused by the frequent inundation of the rivers. Cambay is celebrated for the manufacture of agate, cornelian, and onyx ornaments. The cornelians come chiefly from mines in the vicinity of Ratanpur, in the Native State of Rájpípla, Rewá Kántha. The preparation of the stones was thus described in 1821 by Mr. J. Willoughby, Assistant to the Resident at Baroda: 'The Bhíls, who are the miners, commence their operations about September and leave off in April, when they commence burning the cornelians. The operation of burning is performed by digging a hole one yard square, in which are placed earthen pots filled with the cornelians, which to facilitate the process have for some time previous been exposed to the sun. The bottoms of the pots are taken out, and a layer of about 6 or 7 inches of cow or goat dung, strewed above and below them, is set on fire, which, when consumed, has rendered the stones ready for the Cambay merchants.' The three principal colours of the cornelians are red, white, and yellow, the first of which is considered the most valuable.

Cambay Gulf (or *Gulf of Cambay*).—The strip of sea which separates the Peninsula of Káthiáwár from the northern Bombay coast. The gulf was in ancient times a great resort of commerce, much frequented by Arab mariners. SURAT lies at the eastern point of its mouth; the Portuguese settlement of DIU at the western mouth, and CAMBAY TOWN at its northern extremity. The gulf receives the two great rivers, the Táptí and Narbadá (Nerbudda), on its eastern side;

the Máhi and Sábarmati (Savarnamati) on the north, and several small rivers from Káthiáwár on the west. Owing to the causes mentioned under Cambay Town, the gulf is silting up, and is now resorted to only by small craft. The once famous harbours (SURAT and BROACH, which see separately) around its coast have ceased to be used by foreign commerce.

Camel's Hump (*Wavoolmullay of Indian Atlas*).—Mountain peak in the Calicut *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Height, 7677 feet above the sea. Situated 26 miles north-east of Calicut, in lat. 11° 26′ N., and long. 76° 10′ E.

its picturesque scenery, and its utility for irrigation. Rising on the Brahmágiri, a hill in Coorg, high up amid the Western Gháts, in 12° 25′ N. lat. and 75° 34′ E. long., it flows with a generally south-east direction across the plateau of Mysore, and finally pours itself into the Bay of Bengal, through two principal mouths in the Madras District of Tanjore; total length, about 475 miles; estimated area of drainage basin, 28,000 square miles. It is known to devout Hindus as Dakshin Gangá, or the Ganges of the South, and the whole of its course is holy

Cánara, North.—District of Bombay Presidency.—*See* KANARA.

Cánara, South.—District of Madras Presidency.—*See* KANARA.

Candahar.—Town in Afghánistán.—*See* KANDAHAR.

Cannanore (*Kannúr* or *Kannanúr*, 'Kannan's Town').—Town and port in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 51′ 12″ N., long. 75° 24′ 44″ E.; population (1881) 26,386, namely, 10,656 Hindus, 11,617 Muhammadans, and 4087 Christians; municipal income in 1880–81, £2658, of which £627 was allotted for sanitary purposes; incidence of taxation, about 10½d. per head. The birth-rate in 1880-81 was 26, the death-rate 18·7 per 1000 of municipal population. Being the head-quarters of the Chirrakal *táluk*, Cannanore contains the usual public offices, magisterial and judicial, jail, dispensary, schools, etc.; and it has also a custom house and marine establishment. The value of the sea-going trade during 1880–81 was —imports, £202,051; exports, £102,050.

But the chief importance of Cannanore arises from its position as a military cantonment. It is the head-quarters of the Malabár and Kánara force, being the station of a general of division, with his staff, and is garrisoned by 1 European and 1 Native regiment of infantry. The cantonment is spacious, and intersected by good roads, with two parade grounds, ordnance depôt, brigade and commissariat offices, etc. It lies to the north-east of the fort, a triangular building covering a rocky point which juts out into the sea. Across the bay lies the Mopla (Máppilla) quarter of Cannanore, where the descendants of the old Arab sea-kings of Cannanore reside, the town being otherwise remarkable for the number of its mosques, two of which are of special fame. Within its limits stands the fishing village of Thái, with a

fosse or esplanade; but the works are now out of repair, and few of the guns mounted are serviceable. Only portions of the wall remain, enclosing a circumference of not more than 3 miles. The palace of the Nawáb is in good repair, but built in an inferior style of architecture. The Jamá Masjíd was erected in 1325 A.D., in the time of Muhammad Sháh; the pillars in the interior were taken from desecrated Jain temples, and, though arranged without much attention to architectural effect, give the mosque a picturesque appearance. Many ruins still attest the former wealth of Cambay. It is mentioned, under the name of Cambaet, as a place of great trade by Marco Polo (*circ.* 1293), and by his countryman and contemporary, Marino Sanudo, as one of the two great trading ports of India (Cambeth).

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Canning, Port.—River port on the Matlá river, Bengal.—*See* PORT CANNING.

Caragola.—Town and river *ghát* in Purniah District, Bengal.—*See* KARAGOLA.

Cardamom Hills.—Range of hills in Travancore State, Madras Presidency, lying between 9° 27′ and 10° 4′ N. lat., and between 76° 52′ and 77° 17′ E. long. Average height, from 2000 to 4000 feet above the sea. The hills are divided roughly into the 'Margari Alum' and 'Kunni Alum' groups, both very sparsely populated, and unhealthy. The Kunni Alum, though at a lower average elevation, lies within the influence of the sea-breeze, and enjoys, therefore, a rather better climate than the Margari Alum. The cardamoms collected on these hills amount annually to about 60 tons, valued at £30,000; they thrive best at an elevation of 3000 feet. With the exception of a few small coffee estates on the southern slopes, the hills possess no other economic value.

Carnatic.—Geographical Division of Madras Presidency.—*See* KARNATIC.

Cashmere.—Native State on the north-east frontier of the Punjab.—*See* KASHMIR.

Cassergode (*Kásaragodu*).—*Táluk* in South Kanara District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1032 square miles, containing 243 villages. Houses, 45,287. Population (1881) 243,881, namely, 120,857 males and 123,024 females. Land revenue, £24,367; 1 civil and 2 criminal courts.

de (*Kásaragodu*; 'Kangercote' of the *Tohfat-al-Majáhildín*).
outh Kánara District, Madras Presidency; situated on the river, in lat. 12° 29′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 2′ 10″ E.; population) 6416; number of houses, 1178. No later population available to me, as the town has now less than five habitants. The southernmost post of the ancient Tuluva h an ancient fort of the Ikkeri kings.

(*Káveri*; the Χάβηρος of the Greek geographer Ptolemy).—of Southern India, famous alike for its traditional sanctity, ue scenery, and its utility for irrigation. Rising on the Brahmágiri, a hill in Coorg, high up amid the Western Gháts, in 12° 25′ N. lat. and 75° 34′ E. long., it flows with a generally south-east direction across the plateau of Mysore, and finally pours itself into the Bay of Bengal, through two principal mouths in the Madras District of Tanjore; total length, about 475 miles; estimated area of drainage basin, 28,000 square miles. It is known to devout Hindus as Dakshin Gangá, or the Ganges of the South, and the whole of its course is holy ground. According to the legend preserved in the *Agneya* and *Skánda Puránas*, there was once born upon earth a girl named Vishnumáyá or Lopámudrá, the daughter of Brahma; but her divine father permitted her to be regarded as the child of a mortal, called Kávera-múni. In order to obtain beatitude for her adoptive father, she resolved to become a river whose waters should purify from all sin. Hence it is that even the holy Gangá resorts underground, once in the year, to the source of the Cauvery, to purge herself from the pollution contracted from the crowd of sinners who have bathed in her waters. At Tala Káveri, where the river rises, and at Bhágamandala, where it receives its first tributary, stand ancient temples annually frequented by crowds of pilgrims in the month of Tulámása (October–November).

The course of the Cauvery in Coorg is tortuous. Its bed is rocky; its banks are high and covered with luxuriant vegetation. In the dry season it is fordable almost anywhere, but during the rains it swells into a torrent 20 or 30 feet deep. In this portion of its course it is joined by many tributaries—the Kakábe, Kadanúr, Kumma-hole, Muttáremutta, Chikka-hole, and Suvarnavati or Háríngi. Near the frontier, at the station of Fraserpet, it is spanned by a magnificent stone bridge, 516 feet in length. On entering Mysore, the Cauvery passes through a narrow gorge, but presently widens to an average breadth of from 300 to 400 yards. Its bed continues rocky, so as to forbid all navigation; but its banks are here bordered with a rich strip of wet cultivation. In its course through Mysore, the channel is interrupted by no less than twelve anicuts or dams for the purpose of irrigation. From the most important of these, known as the Madadkatte, an artificial channel is led off 72 miles in length, which irrigates an area of about 10,000 acres,

with a revenue of £7000, and ultimately brings a water-supply into the town of Mysore. In this portion of its course it forms the two islands of SERINGAPATAM and SIVASAMUDRAM, which vie in sanctity with the island of SRIRANGAM lower down in Trichinopoli District.

Enclosing the island of Sivasamúdram are the celebrated falls of the Cauvery, unrivalled for romantic beauty. The river here branches into two channels, each of which makes a descent of about 200 feet in a succession of rapids and broken cascades. The scene has been rendered accessible to visitors by the private munificence of a native of Mysore, who has constructed two stone bridges of rude but solid workmanship to connect the island with either bank. More than one tragic story of former days has gathered round this picturesque spot. The Mysore tributaries of the Cauvery are the Hemavati, Lakshman-tirtha, Lokapávani, Shimsha, Arkavati, and Suvarnavati, or Honnu-hole. After entering the territory of Madras, it forms the boundary between the two Districts of Coimbatore and Salem for a considerable distance, until it strikes into Trichinopoli District. Sweeping past the historic rock of Trichinopoli, it breaks at the island of Srírangam into two channels, which enclose between them the delta of Tanjore, the garden of Southern India. The more northerly of these channels is called the COLEROON (Kolidam); that which continues the course of the river towards the east preserves the name of the Cauvery. On the seaward face of the delta are the open roadsteads of Tranquebar, Negapatam, and French Kárikal.

The only navigation on any portion of the Cauvery is carried on in boats of basket-work. In Madras the chief tributaries are the Bhaváni, Noyel, and Amravati. At Erode the river is crossed by the main line of the Madras Railway, by means of an iron-girder bridge, 1536 feet long with 72 spans, on piers sunk into the solid rock. The total cost of this structure was £40,000.

Although the water of the Cauvery is utilized for agriculture in Mysore and also in Coimbatore District, it is in the delta that its real value for irrigation becomes conspicuous. At Srírangam, just above the point of bifurcation, the flood discharge is estimated at 472,000 feet per second. The problem of utilizing this storehouse of agricultural wealth was first grappled with by a prehistoric Hindu king, who constructed a massive dam of unhewn stone, 1080 feet long and from 40 to 60 feet broad, across the stream of the Cauvery proper. This dam, which is supposed to date back to the 4th century A.D., is still in excellent repair, and has supplied a typical model to our own engineers. When the British first came into possession of Tanjore District, in 1801, it was found that the great volume of the water-supply was then passing unused down the Coleroon, which is mainly a drainage channel; while the Cauvery proper was gradually silting up, and the irrigating channels that take

off from it were becoming dry. The object of the engineering works that have been since constructed is to redress this unequal tendency, and to compel either channel to carry the maximum of water that can be put to good use. The chief modern work is the dam or anicut across the Coleroon, constructed by Sir Arthur Cotton between 1836 and 1838. This dam is 2250 feet long, broken by islands into three sections. The body is of brick, capped with cut stone. Its thickness is 6 feet, supported in the rear by an apron of masonry, 21 feet broad. By means of an elaborate system of self-acting sluices, which have been constructed in subsequent years, the discharge of the two rivers has now been so accurately regulated that neither is being choked with silt, while the surplus water-supply of both is made available for irrigation through a countless number of distributaries. The area already irrigated from this source in 1880 in the three Districts of Tanjore, Trichinopoli, and South Arcot, was 814,366 acres, yielding a revenue of £357,076.

Cawnpur (correctly, *Kánhpur*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 56′ 15″ and 26° 57′ N. lat., and between 79° 34′ 45″ and 80° 38′ E. long.; area, 2370 square miles; population in 1881, 1,181,396 souls. Cawnpur is the westernmost District of the Allahábád Division; bounded on the north-east by the Ganges, on the west by Farukhábád and Etáwah, on the south-west by the Jumna (Jamuná), and on the east by Fatehpur. The administrative head-quarters are at CAWNPUR CITY.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Cawnpur forms part of the Doáb, or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna; and it does not materially differ in its general features from other portions of that monotonous tract. It consists for the most part of a level plateau, only varied by the courses of the minor streams whose waters swell the great boundary rivers, the Ganges and Jumna, and by the steep ravines which channel the friable soil of the plain. The country has a slight general slope towards the south-west, and all the river channels trend in that direction. It is divided into four main sections by the streams which collect and carry away the surface drainage. The Isan cuts off a small angle to the north, joining the Ganges shortly after its entry within the limits of Cawnpur; next come the Pándu and the Rind, which traverse the midland portion of the District from end to end; while to the extreme south, the Sengur falls into the Jumna, and encloses between itself and the main stream a triangular wedge of land. The banks of the two last-named rivers are marked by extensive ravines of great depth, which ramify in every direction from the central gorge. Their soil is almost entirely uncultivable, and they have a wild and desolate appearance, contrasting strongly with the rich and peaceful aspect of the cultivated country above.

The Ganges and Jumna are navigable throughout Cawnpur District

during the rains, for boats of large burthen, but the frequent shallows in the dry season close navigation to all but small boats. The smaller rivers are dry or nearly so, except in the rains, or when surplus canal water is discharged into them. In the rains they are crossed by rude boats, or by rafts made of a dozen inverted large earthen pots bearing a platform of hurdle work. Until 1875, the Ganges at Cawnpur was crossed by a pontoon bridge, which on the completion of the Oudh and Rohilkhand railway bridge was removed to Kalpi. The Jumna is crossed by a bridge of boats, which gives place to a ferry during the monsoon. There are from forty to fifty ferries in the District; but except those over the Ganges, they are only maintained during the rainy months.

The clay of the upland plain is naturally dry and thirsty, but it has been converted into a prosperous agricultural region by the waters of the Ganges Canal. No fewer than four branches of that great engineering work enter the District of Cawnpur at different points; while minor distributaries run from these in every direction over the surrounding fields. The plain is now one of the most flourishing portions of the Doáb, and only an occasional strip of *úsar*, whitened by the efflorescence known as *reh*, breaks the general prospect of cultivated fields. No lake of any size exists in the District, but there are several *jhils* or swamps, and a few small patches of water are formed by the overflow of the canal. A peculiar feature in *parganá* Sikandra is a long drainage line known as *jhil* Sonau, which stretches right across the *parganá* into *parganá* Bhognipur, where its channel deepens into a regular watercourse. As its windings follow those of the Jumna, from which it is distant about two miles, it may be an ancient bed of that river, but no tradition exists to support this theory. After the rains, the lower levels are occupied by shallow ponds, particularly where irrigation trenches connected with the Ganges Canal intersect the natural lines of drainage, thus producing a temporary dam; but the pools which collect under these circumstances are soon drained dry by the cultivators to water their fields. Groves of tamarind and *mahuá* not uncommonly overshadow the village temples or the more ambitious mosques. There is no forest land, but here and there tracts of waste land are covered with *dhák* jungle (Butea frondosa), which, however, is fast disappearing before the extension of cultivation. The fauna of the District includes leopards, wolves, *nílgái*, antelope, deer, foxes, wild hog, and jackals; partridges, peafowl, and sand-grouse abound, while waterfowl are common in the low-lying marshy flats.

History.—The District of Cawnpur is an administrative creation of British rule, not dating further back than the latter half of the last century. Under the Muhammadan system its various *parganás* were distributed between the *Subahs* of Allahábád and Agra, and its early

history, so far as known, is identical with that of the surrounding Districts. The Doáb was conquered by Sháhb-ud-dín Ghorí in 1194 A.D.; and it remained a fief of the various dynasties at Delhi until the establishment of the Mughal power in the 16th century. Bábar subdued the country in 1529; and it became at a somewhat later date the chief scene of the protracted struggle between his son Humáyún and the Pathan Governor of Bengal, Sher Sháh. One or two mosques and other public buildings in the smaller towns still bear witness to the rule of Aurangzeb; but comparatively few traces of the family of Bábar now remain scattered through the District, as it contained hardly any towns of importance during the palmy epoch of the Mughals. On the decline of the Delhi Empire, the country about Cawnpur, with the remainder of the Doáb, was overrun by the Maráthás in 1736. It continued in their hands till 1747, when it was recovered by Safdar Jang, the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh.

The city of Cawnpur was not founded till after our victories of Buxar and Kora in 1764–65, when the Nawáb Wazir Shuja-ud-daulá agreed to pay a tribute of 50 *lákhs* of rupees, and to permit the establishment of two cantonments for British troops within his dominions, one at Cawnpur and the other at Fatehgarh. The troops were at first stationed at Bilgrám, but were removed to Cawnpur in 1778. A city soon sprang up around the military lines, adorned with many handsome mosques and other buildings, but bearing its recent origin somewhat obtrusively upon its face. By the treaty of 1801, the Nawáb Wazír ceded to the British the whole lower Doáb, together with other territory, in commutation of the stipulated tribute, which experience had shown to be in a perpetual condition of arrears. A District of Cawnpur was immediately organized, with much more extensive boundaries than those which at present limit it, and embracing certain *parganás* now transferred, by the necessity for more active and energetic administration, to Etáwah, Farukhábád, and Fatehpur. Our early officials found the country suffering heavily from the fiscal exactions of its native rulers; and the first step needful for the re-establishment of agricultural prosperity was a reduction of the land revenue. A series of reduced settlements were effected at various dates in the early part of the present century, and the District began rapidly to revive under the firm and peaceful rule of its new masters.

No event in the modern annals of Cawnpur calls for special notice until the unhappy incidents of the Mutiny of 1857. The part which the city bore in that great struggle is a matter of imperial rather than of local history. Although we never lost possession of Cawnpur District for more than a few days during the whole rebellion, yet we had to maintain a continuous contest with the insurgents from May to December 1857. Bájí Ráo, the last of the Peshwás,

had taken up his residence, in exile, at the picturesque little town of Bithúr on the Ganges, in this District. On the Peshwá's death his adopted son, Dundhu Panth, was not permitted to assume the titles of his father. As 'Nana Sahib' his name has since become familiar upon every lip. Shortly after the outbreak at Meerut, this disaffected prince was placed in charge of the treasury at Cawnpur. Early in June it was thought desirable to entrench the barracks, and all Europeans were brought within the entrenchment. On the 6th of June, the 2nd Cavalry and 1st Native Infantry rose in revolt, seized the treasury, broke open the jail, and burnt the public offices. They then marched out one stage on the road to Delhi, and were joined by the 53rd and 54th Regiments. The Náná immediately went out to their camp, and persuaded them, by promises of pillage, to return. He next attacked the entrenched Europeans with a brisk cannonade, kept up for three weeks.

The strength of the garrison within the entrenchments will never be known, but it has been estimated at between 750 and 1000, including persons of every rank and colour, sex and age—about 400 males being able to bear arms. The siege called from the beleaguered a display of heroism unsurpassed in history. Under an almost vertical sun, with the thermometer at between 100° and 120° F., the little band fought with dogged valour behind their wretched bulwarks, their eyes sore with dust and glare, and their hands blistered with the heated gun-barrels. Three assaults by the rebels were defeated, but at great loss of life to the defenders. Many died from sunstroke, and women and children were struck down by bullets as well as fighting men.

By the 26th of June, the position of the besieged became untenable, and they capitulated on a sworn promise of protection. The Náná agreed to send them to Allahábád, and next day they marched out to the Satichaura *ghát* or landing-place and got into the boats; but before they could push off, they were fired on from all sides. Two boats only got under weigh, one of which was at once swamped by a round shot; the other went down the river under fire from both banks, and most of the Europeans were killed. A few escaped for a while to Shiorájpur, where some were captured, and the remainder massacred, except four. The soldiers in the boats were mostly shot upon the spot; the women and children were carried off to the Saváda Kothi, where they were all cut to pieces, by the Náná's orders, at the first sound of Havelock's guns outside Cawnpur. About 200 hundred bodies were taken out of the well into which they were thrown, where the well-known Memorial now stands.

General Havelock fought the battles of Aung and the Pándu Nadí on the 15th of July, and next day took Cawnpur by storm. The 17th and 18th were devoted to the recovery of the city, and the 19th to the destruction of Bithúr and the Náná's palaces. Two or

three unsuccessful attempts to cross into Oudh were hazarded, but no actual advance was made until the arrival of reinforcements under General Outram towards the end of August. Lord Clyde's column passed through to the relief of LUCKNOW on the 19th of October, and Colonel Greathed followed a week later. In November, the Gwalior mutineers crossed the Jumna, and, being joined by a large force of Oudh rebels, attacked Cawnpur on the 27th, and obtained possession of the city, which they held till Lord Clyde marched in the next evening. On the 6th of December, Lord Clyde routed them with great loss, and took all their guns. General Walpole then led a column through the country towns, restoring order in Akbarpur, Rasúlábád, and Derápur. The District was not completely pacified till after the fall of Kálpi in May 1858; but that event rendered its reorganization easy, and when Firoz Sháh fled through it in December 1858, his passage caused no disturbance.

Population.—Cawnpur is one of the Districts where agriculture and population have almost reached their utmost limit, and there is a tendency to emigration towards other parts of the country, where employment is more easily obtained. In 1853, the total population was returned at 1,174,556 persons. In 1865, it had risen to 1,192,836; but in 1872, with a slight decrease of area, the number was ascertained to be 1,156,055. The last Census, in 1881, taken upon an area of 2370 square miles (or 34 square miles in excess of the area returned in 1872), disclosed a total population of 1,181,396 persons, distributed among 1970 villages or towns, and inhabiting an aggregate of 201,172 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 498·4; villages per square mile, ·8; houses per square mile, 84·8; persons per village, 600; persons per house, 5·8. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 628,891; females, 552,505; proportion of males, 53·2 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Cawnpur is more essentially Hindu than the neighbouring Districts. In 1881, the Census returned the Hindus at 1,084,964, or 91·9 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans numbered 93,073, or 7·8 per cent.; Christians, 3200; Jains, 114; Jews, 23; Pársís, 16; and Sikhs, 6. Among the Hindu population, the Bráhmans rank first, in numbers as in caste, with a total of 181,234 persons. The Rájputs were returned at 91,722 persons. These two castes form the chief land-holding bodies in the District. The Baniyás had 38,489 members, engaged, as usual, in commercial pursuits. Of the inferior castes, the Chámars (129,713) were the most numerous; most of them are labourers in the poorest condition. Next come the Ahírs (117,090), Kurmís (55,437), Kachhís (48,472), Gadariás (42,507), Korís (41,547), Lodhás (42,185), Telís (27,769), and Náis (25,845). Amongst Musalmán tribes, the Shaikhs are the most important.

With regard to the occupations of the people, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials, military, and the learned professions, 17,506; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 4044; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 15,611; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 277,375; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 84,913; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 36,451 labourers, 8 men of rank and property, and 192,983 unspecified, including children), 229,442.

The village organization is of the same general type which is common throughout the Lower Doáb. First comes the body of land-owners, generally Rájputs or Bráhmans; below them rank the old hereditary cultivators, who possess rights of occupancy, and are often descendants or clansmen of former landowners; third in social importance are the Baniyás, shopkeepers, and petty bankers; the fourth stratum consists of tenants-at-will, who till the land for a bare subsistence; while the lowest class of all is composed of the artisans and labourers, indispensable to the native system, such as the barber, the potter, the washerman, the tanner, the scavenger, and the water-carrier.

The District contained in 1881 four towns with upwards of 5000 inhabitants, namely, Cawnpur City (including cantonments), 151,444; Bithúr, 6685; Bilhaur, 5589; and Akbarpur, 5131. These figures show an urban population of 169,149 persons, leaving 1,012,147 for the rural population. The greater part of the inhabitants are scattered over the face of the country in small villages. Of the total of 1970 villages and towns, 530 contained less than 200 inhabitants, 785 from 200 to 500, 394 from 500 to 1000, 204 from 1000 to 2000, and 61 upwards of 2000 inhabitants. The male adult agricultural population was returned at 275,494, or 23·32 per cent. of the total population, 11,555 being returned as landholders, 210,368 as cultivators, 1532 as estate officers, and 52,039 as agricultural labourers.

As regards the condition of the people, the Settlement Officer has come to the conclusion that though a certain proportion of the agricultural class, such as Chamárs and many Muhammadans, live barely above starvation-point, yet the cultivating population as a whole are fairly well off. The extension of irrigation and the rise in the prices of produce has placed the industrial classes above want; while the increased demand for labour has given a greater fixity to the daily income, small as it is, of the labouring class. Careful calculations by the Settlement Officer show that a Chamár, with a five-acre holding, ought to make a profit of £4, 12s. per annum; a Kachhí (market-gardener), with an eight-acre holding, a profit of £9, 1s. per annum; and a Kurmí, with fifteen acres, a profit of £13, 11s. per annum. In

this calculation, the profit includes the wages of the cultivator, and the labour of his wife and family.

Agriculture.—The system of tillage in Cawnpur is that common to the whole Doáb. There are two main agricultural seasons, the *kharíf*, or autumn harvest, and the *rabí*, or spring harvest. The *kharíf* crops are sown after the first rain in June, and include rice, maize, *bájra*, *joár*, cotton, indigo, etc. Most of these staples are reaped in October, but the early rice is harvested in September, while cotton is not ready for picking until February. The *rabí* crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April; they consist chiefly of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests, and land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. Spring and autumn crops are not often taken off the same land; but sometimes a crop of early rice is reaped in September, and a second crop of some other kind is put into the ground in the following month. The staple product of the District is wheat, but the cultivation of cotton has received a great impetus since the American war. Among the minor crops are oil-seeds, opium, spices, tobacco, and potatoes. Sugar-cane is extensively grown on the better soils, and indigo is specially cultivated for the sake of the seed, which is exported in large quantities to Behar. The various branches of the Ganges Canal afford abundant opportunities for irrigation, and the shallow ponds which collect after the rains are used by the villagers for the same purpose. In *parganás* Rasúlábád and Shiorájpur a succession of swampy bottoms, the former bed of a considerable stream, runs in an irregular line across the country for about 25 miles; the water left in them after the rainy season is employed to irrigate the spring crops, while rice is grown in their moist basins after the surface has been thus partially drained.

Of the District area of 2370 square miles, 1363·9 square miles were returned as under cultivation in 1882–83, 353·6 square miles as cultivable, and 642 square miles as cultivable waste; while 10 square miles were revenue-free or otherwise unassessed. The area under the different crops in 1882–83 (including land twice cropped) was thus distributed—*kharíf* 481,208 acres, and *rabí*, 453,885 acres. Of the *kharíf* crop, *joár* occupied 191,987 acres; *bájra*, 33,077 acres; maize, 37,837 acres; cotton, 104,475 acres; sugar-cane, 6233 acres; and indigo, 59,100. Of the *rabí* crops, wheat took up 58,850 acres; wheat and barley, 32,811 acres; wheat and gram, 22,142; barley, 12,805 acres; barley and gram, 262,162 acres; and gram, 51,327.

Cawnpur District has always had a reputation for poverty. Densely populated, and with a large proportion of industrious Kachhí, Kurmí, and Lodhá cultivators; having ample facilities for irrigation over at least two-thirds of its area, with free communication in every direction, there

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has been little room left for increase of cultivation and enhanced prosperity since this part of Oudh passed under British rule. Some advance has undoubtedly been made within the last forty years, mainly through the enhanced prices for all kinds of agricultural produce.

In the northern *parganás*, *joár* and wheat are grown in large proportions; while in the southern *parganás*, barely 2 per cent. of the area is under wheat, and *bájra* forms the staple crop. Rice is chiefly grown in Bilhaur, Rasúlábád, and the southern part of Shiorájpur; while northern Shiorájpur is covered with indigo, small native factories studding the entire area north of the Pándu. The sources of irrigation are the various distributaries of the Ganges Canal, wells, and in a less degree, ponds, lakes, and rivers. The total irrigated area in 1882–83 was 244,468 acres, 131,545 acres being watered from Government works, and 112,923 acres by private enterprise.

The average rates of rent in Cawnpur for cultivators with rights of occupancy are returned at 8s. $10\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre for resident and 8s. $1\frac{1}{2}$d. for non-resident cultivators. Resident tenants-at-will pay 9s. $4\frac{3}{8}$d. an acre, and non-resident tenants-at-will, 7s. $8\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre. Of the entire cultivated area, 61·7 per cent. is held by cultivators with occupancy rights, and 18·9 per cent. by tenants-at-will; while 10·6 per cent. is *sír* or home-farm land of the *zamíndárs*, and the balance of 8 8 per cent. consists of revenue-free land, etc. The adult male agricultural population, excluding farm-labourers, numbered 221,923 in 1881, cultivating an average of 3·18 acres each. The total population, however, entirely dependent on the soil, is returned at 736,397, or 62·33 per cent. of the District population. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses paid on land, £252,840, or an average of 5s. $10\frac{3}{4}$d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rent actually paid by the cultivators, including cesses, £376,964, or an average of 8s. $7\frac{3}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. Cash rents are the rule. Occasionally a landlord sub-lets a portion of his homestead land (*sír*) on the metayer system. Newly-broken uplands, where the quality of the soil is a matter of doubt for the first year, are also generally held at first on a division of the produce. The agricultural stock of the District was returned as follows at the time of the settlement operations:—Plough cattle and buffaloes, 218,295; cows, 171,275; draught cattle, 96,217; sheep, 29,820; goats, 78,890.

In 1882, the rates of wages were as follows:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, $5\frac{1}{4}$d. to $6\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem; agricultural labourers, $4\frac{1}{2}$d. to $5\frac{1}{4}$d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 9d. to 1s. Women receive about one-fifth less than men, while children are paid from one-half to one-third of the wages of adults. The following were the average prices of food-stuffs in 1882:—Wheat, $17\frac{1}{2}$ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. $4\frac{1}{2}$d. per cwt.; rice, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; *joár*, $27\frac{1}{4}$ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *bájra*, $25\frac{1}{2}$ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. $4\frac{1}{2}$d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Cawnpur suffers, like other Districts of the Doáb, from drought and its natural consequence, famine. It is not so severely visited in this respect as the country farther to the west; but neither, on the other hand, does it share the comparative immunity of the region immediately eastward. It was the most westerly of all the Districts which experienced the terrible famine of 1770. In 1783-84, both autumn and spring crops failed, and the people and cattle died by thousands. The distress was worst beyond the Jumna, and the starving hordes of Bundelkhand crossed the river into Cawnpur only to die on their arrival. The next great drought was that of 1803-4, when most of the *kharíf* crops and the whole *rabí* harvest perished for want of rain. The famine of 1837 visited Cawnpur with frightful severity. During July, August, and September no rain fell, and not a blade of vegetation was produced; the cattle died in herds, and whole villages were depopulated. The *parganás* along the Ganges suffered most; and though revenue was remitted, and relief works were started, immense tracts of arable land fell out of cultivation, as neither men nor cattle were left to till them. A little of the autumn crops escaped along the Jumna, and a few patches were cultivated for the spring harvest by means of irrigation. In 1860-61, the distress was worst in the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand, but did not reach so far east as Cawnpur in its full intensity. The scarcity was quite sufficient, however, to put pressure on the lower classes, and crimes against property became much more frequent than usual. In 1868-69, 1873-74, and 1878, Cawnpur escaped almost unhurt; and it is hoped that the existing means of communication, combined with the grand opportunities for irrigation afforded by the Ganges Canal, will suffice to protect it in future from the worst extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The District as a whole has a considerable agricultural trade in raw materials, especially grain, cotton, and indigo-seed. In the city of Cawnpur, saddlery, boots, and other leathern articles are manufactured in large quantities. The Elgin and Muir Cotton Mills, under European supervision, afford employment to a great number of hands, and supply the native weavers with yarn for their looms. Leather goods, textile fabrics, and tents are largely exported. There is a large Government tannery and leather manufactory in the old fort, for the supply of accoutrements for the army. Government lour mills grind corn for commissariat purposes. For many years ast, Cawnpur showed a tendency to increase its business, to the etriment of other local markets, such as Farukhábád. It has long been he principal entrepôt for commerce arriving from Oudh, Rohilkhand, he remoter Doáb villages, and Bundelkhand. Quite lately, however, mptoms of a reactionary tendency have been observed, owing doubt-ss to the extension of the railway system, which favours the develop-

ment of local centres and the general diffusion of commerce. The bankers and large traders of Cawnpur are chiefly Baniyás and Rájputs. They have correspondents at Calcutta, Patna, Benares, Mirzápur, Allahábád, Agra, and Háthras; and they act in turn as agents for firms at those places. The means of communication are ample. The East Indian Railway passes through the whole length of the District, with five stations within its boundaries. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway sends its Cawnpur branch across the river Ganges by a girder bridge, and has a station at the town. The Grand Trunk Road also traverses the District, parallel to the Ganges, with a length of 64 miles; it conveys most of the local heavy traffic. There are other metalled roads to Kálpi and to Hamírpur (crossing the Jumna by pontoon bridges); while unmetalled roads, raised and bridged throughout, connect all the minor local centres. A great deal of country produce, such as grain, indigo-seed, wood, and hides, is still conveyed by water along the Ganges and the Jumna.

Administration.—The ordinary staff of the District consists of a Collector-Magistrate, two Joint Magistrates, an Assistant, and two Deputies. In 1876, the whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District amounted to £303,361; while in 1880-81 the gross revenue amounted to £390,286, of which £214,924 was derived from the land-tax. In 1881 the strength of the regular District police force consisted of 552 officers and men, and the cantonment and town police, of 428 of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £10,372, of which £7480 is contributed from the provincial revenue. These figures show one policeman to every 2·39 square miles and every 1171 of the population; with an expenditure at the rate of £4, 14s. per square mile, and 2⅜d. per inhabitant. The regular police was supplemented by a body of 2852 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, maintained by the landholders or villagers, or one to every 414 of the population. The District jail contained in 1880-81 a daily average of 382 prisoners, of whom 348 were males and 34 females. There are 29 imperial and 4 local post-offices in the District. The Government has a telegraph-office at Cawnpur, and the East Indian Railway telegraph-offices at all its stations. Education was carried on in 1881 by means of 234 schools under State inspection, maintained or assisted by Government, with a total of 7082 pupils on 31st March. The total cost of these schools in 1880-81 amounted to £5537, of which £1892 was paid from the provincial revenue, the remainder being derived from endowments, grants, fees, etc. The above figures do not include private uninspected schools, for which returns are not available. The Census of 1881, however, returned a total of 11,035 boys at school, out of a total male population of 628,891, or one in 56; and 278 girls at school out of a total female population of 552,505, or one in 1987. For fiscal

purposes Cawnpur is sub-divided into 9 *tahsíls* and 90 *parganás*. The District contains only one municipality—Cawnpur city (*q.v.*).

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Cawnpur is like that of the other Doáb Districts. From the middle of April to the 1st of July it is excessively hot and dry, and westerly winds prevail. After this, the monsoon is ushered in by damp east winds. The rainy season lasts till the end of September or beginning of October; the cold weather commences about the 1st of November. The District is on the whole well drained, and is therefore fairly healthy during the rains. The average annual rainfall for the 30 years ending 1880 was 29·23 inches. During this period, the maximum was 48·7 inches in 1867, and the minimum was 11·0 inches in 1860. The rainfall in 1880 was 22·13 inches, or 7·13 inches below the average. The total number of deaths reported in 1881 was 48,978, or 41 per thousand of the population; the average death-rate per thousand during the previous six years was 36·90. There are 7 dispensaries in the District—at Cawnpur, Nawábganj, Generalganj, Bhognipur, Ghátampur, Derápur, and Bithur; the first three being in the city and station. During the year 1881, 34,547 persons were treated in these institutions, of whom 993 were in-door patients and 33,554 out-door. [For further information regarding Cawnpur, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. vi. pp. 1 to 269 (Government Press, Allahábád, 1881). Also the *Settlement Report of Cawnpur*, by J. N. Wright, Esq., C.S. (1878); the *Census Report of* 1881 *for the North-Western Provinces;* and the *Administration Reports of the Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Cawnpur City.—Administrative head-quarters of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the right bank of the river Ganges, 130 miles above its junction with the Jumna at Allahábád. Lat. 26° 28′ 15″ N., and long. 80° 23′ 45″ E. Distant from Calcutta 628 miles north-west, from Delhi 266 miles south-east. Cawnpur is the fourth city in size and importance of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; including the native city, cantonments, and civil station, it covers an area of 6015 acres, and has a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 151,444 souls. Elevation above sea-level, about 500 feet.

Situation and Appearance.—The cantonments and civil station of Cawnpur lie along the right bank of the Ganges, while the native city stretches inland toward the south-west, and also fills up the space between the military and civil portions of the European quarter. Starting from the east, on the Allahábád road, the race-course first meets the eye of the approaching visitor. The Native Cavalry Lines succeed to the westward, after which comes the brigade parade ground. North-east of the latter lie the European Infantry barracks and St. John's Church; while the intervening ground, between these cantonments and

the river bank, is occupied by the Memorial Church, built on the site of Wheeler's entrenchments in 1857, the club, the artillery lines, and the various military offices. The city covers the plain north of the parade ground; and the Ganges shore is here lined by the Memorial Gardens, enclosing the famous well. The gardens cover nearly 50 acres, and are prettily laid out. Over the fatal well, a mound has been raised, which slopes upwards until it is crowned by a handsome octagonal Gothic wall, with iron gates. In the centre of the enclosure is the figure of an angel in white marble by Marochetti, with arms crossed on her breast, each hand holding a palm branch. Over the archway of the gate is inscribed: 'These are they which came out of great tribulation;' and around the wall which marks the circle of the well: 'Sacred to the perpetual memory of a great company of Christian people, chiefly women and children, who near this spot were cruelly murdered by the followers of the rebel Náná Dhundu Panth of Bithur, and cast, the dying with the dead, into the well below, on the xvth day of July MDCCCLVII.' The expense of the construction of the gardens and memorial was defrayed partly out of a fine levied on the city after the suppression of the rebellion. A Government grant of £500 a year is made for the maintenance of the gardens, which is irrigated from the Ganges Canal. In the gardens, south and south-west of the well, are two graveyards with monuments to those who were massacred or died at Cawnpur during the Mutiny. Farther to the west stands the civil station, with the Bank of Bengal, Christ Church, the theatre, and other European buildings. Old Cawnpur lies three miles farther along the river-side, separated from the present city by fields and gardens. The modern origin of Cawnpur deprives it of architectural attractions; and it cannot boast of such ancient palaces or handsome mansions as adorn Agra, Benares, and other historic capitals. The few buildings with any pretensions to beauty or elegance have been erected during the last fifty years by bankers, merchants, or pleaders. The native city was built according to no plan, and is badly laid out, abounding in narrow streets and passages. Except on the undulating margin of the Ganges, or where indented by ravines, the sites of the city, cantonment and civil station, are alike flat and uninteresting. The principal landing-place on the Ganges is that known as the Sarsiya *ghát*, a noble flight of steps, surrounded by a vaulted arcade of brick and stone. Cawnpur also contains, besides the buildings mentioned above, two Roman Catholic chapels, a Union Church, a fine market-place, high school, club, and two racquet courts, etc.

History.—Cawnpur possesses no historic interest in early times, being a purely modern creation to meet the military and administrative needs of the British Government. The city first arose after the defeats of Shujá-ud-daulá, Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, at Buxar, in October 1764,

and at Kora in May 1765. The Nawáb then concluded a treaty with the British, granting them the right of stationing troops at two places in his dominions, Cawnpur and Fatehgarh. One of the detachments, however, was at first quartered at Bilgrám; and it was not till 1778 that the present site became the advanced frontier post in this portion of the newly-acquired territory. From the location of a large body of troops in Cawnpur, the town sprang rapidly into importance as a trading mart, and has now developed into a commercial city of the first rank. In 1801, the surrounding country came finally under British rule, by cession from the Nawáb Wazír, and the head-quarters of a District were fixed in the city. No events of historical note occurred between the annexation and the Mutiny of 1857; but in that year Cawnpur was rendered memorable by the leading part which it played in the operations of the mutineers. The struggle with the rebels lasted from May to December; but the station itself was never lost for more than a few days.

News of the outbreak of the troops at Meerut reached Cawnpur on the 14th of May. Eleven days later, the Náná Dundhu Panth of BITHUR, adopted son of the last Peshwá, Báji Ráo, was placed in charge of the treasury; and, on the 30th of May, the entrenchment of the European barracks began. On the 6th of June, the native troops mutinied, sacked the treasury, broke open the jail, and burnt the public offices. Next day, the Náná opened fire on the entrenchments, which had no other fortification than a mud parapet, 5 feet in height. After three weeks' cannonade, the position became untenable, and the garrison capitulated under a promise of personal security and safe conduct to Allahábád. On the 27th they embarked in boats on the Ganges for Allahábád, at the Sáti Chaura *ghát*, a landing-place near the spot where the Memorial Gardens now stand. Before they could put off, they were treacherously fired upon from the bank, and all destroyed or captured, except one boat-load, which escaped for the time into Fatehpur District. The prisoners, including women and children, were crowded into a house at Cawnpur, and finally massacred by the Náná's orders, in the Saváda Kothi, near the East Indian Railway, and their bodies cast into the now historic well, noticed above. On the 16th of July, Havelock's small force entered the city, and the Náná fled precipitately to Bithur.

Four days later, General Neill arrived with an ample reinforcement of 400 Europeans. Havelock thrice advanced unsuccessfully into Oudh, and retreated at last to Cawnpur, on the 10th of August. Shortly afterwards, General Outram reached the city, and marched on to the relief of Lucknow, which was successfully accomplished on the 25th. Lord Clyde's and Col. Greathed's columns passed through on different occasions in October; and on the 26th of November, the

Gwalior mutineers approached Cawnpur. General Windham attacked and defeated the rebel force; but, being strengthened by Oudh insurgents, they again assaulted the city, which they wrested from us on the 27th. They held it, however, only for a single night, as Lord Clyde's army marched in on the evening of the 28th, drove out the mutineers, and utterly defeated them next day, outside the city, with the loss of all their guns. After the re-organization of the District, the site of the massacre was laid out as Memorial Gardens, and an ornamental building was placed over the well into which the bodies were flung. The surrounding wall is pierced with rows of lancet windows or openings, having trefoiled mullions; and handsome bronze doors close the entrance. Within stands the marble angel of Marochetti, already described. This forms the chief object of interest to visitors in a city otherwise devoid of historical interest. A Memorial Church also occupies the site of General Wheeler's entrenchments in the cantonment. The style is Romanesque, and the material consists of massive red brick, relieved by buttresses and copings of buff freestone.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned the population of Cawnpur city and civil station at 120,161 souls; namely, 90,922 Hindus, 28,359 Muhammadans, 111 Jains, and 769 Christians or 'others.' The cantonments contained a population of 31,283, made up of 22,432 Hindus, 6378 Muhammadans, 3 Jains, and 2470 Christians and 'others.' Grand total, 151,444, namely, Hindus, 113,354; Muhammadans, 34,737; Jains, 114; Christians, 3194; and 'others,' 45.

Communications, Trade, etc.—The Ganges forms the natural waterway for the traffic of Cawnpur, and still carries a large portion of the heavy trade. The Ganges canal, which passes just south of the city, is also navigable, and affords means of communication for a considerable number of country boats. The East Indian Railway from Allahábád to Delhi has a station about a mile west of the city; and the Lucknow branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, after crossing the Ganges by a girder bridge, passes between the native quarter and the cantonments and joins the East Indian line a little west of the Cawnpur station. The Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Delhi also runs through the city and military lines; while other roads branch off southward to Kálpi and Hamírpur, and northward over the railway bridge, to Unao and Lucknow.

The chief industry of Cawnpur consists in the manufacture of leather goods, which is rapidly developing from year to year. A large Government tannery and leather manufactory is situated in the old fort, together with a steam flour mill. Two large steam cotton mills give employment to a considerable number of operatives, who manufacture yarn, cloth, and tents, and supply the native weavers with material for their craft; and several cotton presses, both European and native. These two items

of leather and cotton goods make up the principal export trade of Cawnpur; but the city also forms a great grain mart where agricultural produce from Bundelkhand, Oudh, and the middle Doáb is collected for despatch by rail. The commerce of Cawnpur has steadily increased for many years past, somewhat to the detriment of Fatehgarh, Mirzápur, and other local trading centres; but the development of the railway system in Upper India is already acting so as to decentralize the trade, by creating intermediate marts.

Three weekly vernacular newspapers are published in the town, which also contains two English and about six vernacular printing-presses. Municipal income in 1882–83, £15,160, of which £9103 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 6d. per head of population within municipal limits (117,030). The cantonment is not included within municipal limits. The troops ordinarily stationed in the cantonment consist of one European and one native regiment of infantry, a regiment of native cavalry, and a battery of royal artillery.

Ceded Districts.—A term applied to the territory in the Deccan ceded to the British in 1800, after the downfall of Tipú Sultán, for the maintenance of the Nizám's Subsidiary Force. In the Madras Presidency, the Districts of North Arcot, Kurnool, Bellary, and Cuddapah are known as the Ceded Districts.—*See* HYDERABAD STATE.

Ceded and Conquered Provinces.—A term formerly applied to the Provinces ceded by the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh in 1801, including Allahábád, Azamgarh, Farukhábád, Etáwah, Gorakhpur, etc., with a total revenue of Sicca rupees 13,523,474 (see Aitchison's *Treaties*, vol. ii. pp. 100–103, ed. 1876). They formed the nucleus of the North-Western Provinces, and still constitute the eastern portion of that Lieutenant-Governorship.

Central India. — This is the term now officially applied to the territories included in the nine Political Agencies under the ultimate supervision of the Agent to the Governor-General for Central India, who resides at Indore, and who is in direct correspondence with the Supreme Government. These are the INDORE, the BHIL or BHOPAWAR, the DEPUTY BHIL, the WESTERN MALWA, the BHOPAL, the GWALIOR, the GUNA, the BUNDELKHAND, and the BAGHELKHAND AGENCIES, all being included and collectively designated as the 'CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY.' The whole tract in which these Agencies are included lies to the north of the Central Provinces, having the North-Western Provinces on the north-east, Rájputána on the north-west, the Bombay District of Khándesh and Rewá Kántha on the west and south-west, and the Garhját State of Chang-Bakhár of Chutia-Nágpur in Bengal on the east. The states of the Central India Agency, comprised in this tract of country, cover an area of about

75,000 square miles, with a population (1881) of 9,261,907 souls. The whole tract has been roughly described as a great triangle with the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Son (Soane) for its hypotenuse, and having for one side the valley of the Ganges, and for the other the river, Chambal and the Chittor hills. It lies between 21° 24′ and 26° 52′ N. lat., and between 74° 0′ and 83° 0′ E. long. The British Districts of Jhánsi and Lalitpur, of the North-Western Provinces, divide this Agency into two main divisions — Native Bundelkhand and Bághelkhand, lying to the east, and Central India proper to the west.

The following are the States included within the whole area, each of which see separately: — Indore, Dewás, Bágli, and 15 guaranteed *Thákurates* under the Indore Agency; Dhár, Jhabua, Ali-Rájpur, Jobat, and 13 guaranteed *Thákurates* under the Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency; the British *parganá* of Mánpur, Barwání, and 10 guaranteed *Thákurates* under the Deputy-Bhíl Agency; Jaora, Ratlám, Sitámau, Sailána, and 17 guaranteed *Thákurates* under the Western Málwá Agency; Bhopál, Rájgarh, Narsinghgarh, Khilchipur, Kurwai, Maksúdangarh, Muhammadgarh, Pathárí, Basoda, and 17 guaranteed *Thákurates* under the Bhopál Agency; Gwalior, and 15 minor chiefs under the Gwalior Agency and the Gúna Sub-Agency of Gwalior; Orchha or Tehrí Datia, Sampthar, Panna, Charkhári, Ajaigarh, Bijáwar, Chhatarpur, Baoni, Alipura, Bironda, Jaso, Kalinjar, Gaurihár, Khania-Dhána, and 17 other petty chiefs under the Bundelkhand Agency; Rewá, Nagode, Maihar, Soháwal, Kotí, Sidpura, and Raigáon under the Bághelkhand Agency.

The Bundelkhand and Bághelkhand portion, or the eastern part of the great triangular plateau of Central India, is watered by the rivers Dhasan and Ken flowing into the Jumna, and on the east by the Son flowing into the Ganges, the Khaimúr range of hills—a continuation of the Vindhyas—rising up along its left bank. The Panna range, with deep ravines and isolated crags on its north-western face, traverses this Division of Central India, and there is a broken plateau between the Panna and Khaimúr ridges watered by the TONS, a tributary of the Ganges. To the north, the Bundelkhand division terminates in an amphitheatre of precipices shaping the country below into a bay bounded by sandstone cliffs.

The larger or Central India division has the great range of the Vindhyas along the whole south, abruptly overhanging the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and presenting the appearance of a weather-beaten coast-line. From its summits, varying in height from 1500 to 2500 feet, the northern slope to the Jumna commences, the whole region consisting of a broken but elevated country, with ranges of hills, watered by the river CHAMBAL, with its tributaries the KALI-SIND and PARBATI, and by the SIND and BETWA, all flowing into the Jumna, and descending from the high table-lands in cascades of great height.

The mineral resources of the whole country are considerable—iron, coal, copper, and limestone abound; and in the Bundelkhand portion, about 12 or 15 miles north-east of the town of Panna, the capital of the State of that name, is an adamantiferous tract from which diamonds are extracted of the value of several thousand pounds sterling a year. The mines are less prosperous now than formerly; but it is believed that inexhaustible diamond-producing strata exist in this locality, and that, if the mines were properly worked, their productiveness would be found not to have diminished. Most of the territory included under the Central India Agency is well cultivated and fertile, and the whole of the Málwá plateau most fertile, producing in abundance and excellence, wheat, rice, and other grains and pulses, sugar-cane, cotton, and especially opium. Tobacco is also much cultivated, and is of excellent quality.

Population.—The population of the States under the Central India Agency is of a widely diverse character, comprising besides Maráthás (the ruling class), Rájputs, Bundelás, Bághelás, Játs, Kolís, and a number of aboriginal tribes, the most numerous being the Gonds and the uncivilised Bhíls. The Census of 1881 was the first systematic attempt that has been made to enumerate the population of these States, all previous returns being mere estimates. The results disclosed a total population of 9,261,907 persons, spread over an area of 75,229 square miles, containing 53 towns and 31,465 villages, and inhabiting 1,680,394 houses; average density of population, 123·12 per square mile; persons per town or village, 294; persons per occupied house, 5·5. The population is almost entirely Hindu, no less than 7,800,396 being returned as belonging to this religion, while only 510,718 are Muhammadans. Jains number 49,824; Pársís, 916; Christians, 7065, principally in the British cantonments; Sikhs, 1455; Jews, 38; aborigines, 891,424; and 'others,' 71. Bráhmans number 961,993, and are the most numerous caste, except the despised Chamárs, in the Central India States. Rájputs are returned at 803,366. Other principal Hindu castes—Chamárs, 1,076,949; Gujárs, 337,466; Ahírs, 246,376; Baniyás, 286,678; Telís, 250,252; Baláis, 170,392; Kachhís, 183,064; and Kúnbís, 168,148. The aboriginal tribes constitute 9 per cent. of the population of the Central India States. The Gonds number 413,602, and live in the Gondwáná tract. Next in importance come the Bhíls, who are returned at 217,022. They inhabit the States on the south-west corner, and are not found elsewhere in Central India. Formerly a tribe which lived by plunder, they are now gradually settling down as peaceful agriculturists. Kols, who number 187,315, are aborigines of the hilly country around Chutiá Nágpur, and are only found in Panna among the Central India States.

Climate.—The northern part of Central India has a climate partaking of the torrid character of the neighbouring tracts of the North-

Western Provinces and Rájputána. In these parts, the climate during the rainy season, and for a short time after, is exceedingly unhealthy, fevers being then rife in consequence of the moisture imbibed by the superficial alluvial soil being prevented from passing off by an impenetrable substratum of sandstone. During the dry and hot seasons, the climate is not unhealthy. The middle, the southern, and the western parts, or those occupied within the Málwá tract, with little exception, have a mild and rather equable climate, resulting from the greater elevation of the surface. The cool season comprises the period from November to February, the hot season succeeds and continues to the middle of June, when the periodical rains set in and last to the close of September, the average fall being about 50 inches. During the rains the thermometer has a moderate range, rarely more than from 72° to 80° F.; in the winter it sometimes falls three or four degrees below freezing-point. During the sultry season the hot winds are comparatively mild, and of short duration, though the thermometer sometimes rises to nearly 100° during the day, but the nights are for the most part cool and refreshing.

A trunk road from Gwalior to Bombay, *via* Indore, runs through the whole length of the Central India division of the territory, while good roads connect the capitals of the various states throughout the whole tract with each other and with the neighbouring large towns in British territory. The 'Rájputána-Málwá Railway,' from Ajmere, connects with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at Khandwa station, passing through the territory on the west *via* Neemuch, Ratlam, Indore, and Mhow (Mau), a small branch of the line connecting with Ujjain. The Bhopál State Railway, branching off from Itársi station of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, runs to Bhopál, while the Sindhia State Railway has been completed between Agra and Gwalior *via* Dholpur, the surveys for an extension of the line *via* Jhansi and Lalitpur to Bhopál being in progress. The Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) extension line of the East Indian Railway from Allahábád to Jabalpur runs through the Bundelkhand portion of the country.

The highest representative of the Paramount Power in Central India is the Agent to the Governor-General of India, who resides at Indore. His authority is the unifying principle that pervades the administration of the many states of Central India committed to his care. He is the friend and counsellor of all the ruling chiefs; he is the guardian of chiefs during their minority; and he is the medium of communication between the Imperial Government and the native *Darbárs*. He is, moreover, a minister of war for Central India, having large bodies of troops at his disposal. He exercises the functions of a High Court of Judicature, original and appellate, within the limits of the Residencies and Cantonments. He exercises a supervision over the opium-tax,

with the designation of Opium Agent; over the payment of tribute, relief, and other feudal charges to which the protected states are liable; and over the various political officers superintending the several agencies named above.

Central India Agency.—The collective name given to the nine Political Agencies under the Agent to the Governor-General for Central India.—*See* CENTRAL INDIA.

Central Provinces.—The name given to the territory under the administration of a Chief Commissioner, lying between 17° 50′ and 24° 27′ N. lat., and between 76° and 85° 15′ E. long. The Chief-Commissionership extends from Bundelkhand in the north to the Madras Presidency in the south, and from the frontier of Bengal in the east to Independent Málwá and the Deccan in the west, with an extreme length from north to south of 500 miles, and from east to west of 600 miles. Of the ancient geographical divisions of India, the Central Provinces comprise nearly the whole of Gondwáná, and parts of Hindustán and Málwá. Population in 1881, 11,548,511; area, 113,279 square miles.

Physical Aspects.—The tract falls naturally into several distinct areas, marked out by their physical features, and in a great measure by geological structure. To the north extends the Vindhyan table-land (including the Districts of SAGAR (Saugor) and DAMOH), which sheds its waters northwards into the valley of the Ganges. Throughout this region, the surface is formed by the deposits styled 'Vindhyan,' except in the large tracts where the Vindhyan strata are concealed by the overflowing volcanic rocks of the great Deccan trap area. South of Ságar (Saugor) and Damoh, in the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), come MANDLA (which includes the upper course of the river before it debouches into the plains), JABALPUR (Jubbulpore), NARSINGHPUR, HOSHANGABAD, and a part of NIMAR, the rest of which lies in the valley of the Táptí. This area chiefly consists of alluvial and tertiary deposits, with a narrow belt of older rocks along the southern side of the valley. Continuing southwards, the next cluster of Districts comprises BETUL, CHHINDWARA, SEONI, and BALAGHAT, which occupy the extensive highlands constituting the Sátpura table-land, in great part formed of the Deccan traps resting upon crystalline rocks, or upon sandstone and other rocks of later date. These Districts at their central plateaux attain a height of about 2000 feet. Still farther to the south extends the great Nágpur plain, formed by the valleys of the Wardhá and Wáingangá, which comprises the Districts of NAGPUR, WARDHA, BHANDARA, and CHANDA. This region has no great elevation. It rests principally on gneissose and trap rocks, the former predominating in Nágpur and Bhandárá, the latter in Wardhá, eastwards. Below the *gháts* lies the Chhatísgarh plain, a low expanse of red

soil, containing the Districts of RAIPUR and BILASPUR. In this division is also included the District of SAMBALPUR, a rugged and jungly country, composed of crystalline and metamorphic rocks. Sambalpur is not, however, part of Chhatísgarh proper, either geographically or historically. It was originally attached to the South-Western Frontier Agency of Bengal, and lies principally in the valley of the Mahánadí. Last of all, to the extreme south, almost cut off by forests and wild semi-independent States, is a strip of territory, of varied geological structure, stretching along the left bank of the Godávarí, and attached to Chándá District.

The hill plateau is thus succeeded by a lowland plain, and again a larger and loftier plateau by a larger plain, ending in a mass of hill and forest, which is probably the wildest part of the whole Indian peninsula. But even the comparatively level portions of this area are broken by isolated peaks and straggling hill ranges; and nowhere in India are the changes of soil and vegetation more rapid and marked than in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) country. 'There,' writes Mr. Charles Grant, 'in the pleasant winter months, the eye may range over miles of green corn-lands, broken only by low black boundary ridges or dark twisting foot-paths. The horizon is bounded here and there by hill ranges, which seem to rise abruptly from the plain; but on approaching them, the heavy green of their slopes is found to be divided from the softer hues of the young wheat by broad belts of gravelly soil,—here carpeted with short sward and dotted with noble trees, there uncovered, and contrasting their brown-red tints with the deep black of the valley lands. But the greenness of English scenery is wanting. It is only in favoured reaches of the rivers, where the pools never dry up, that the water-loving shrubs keep their verdure and brilliancy throughout the year.'

On the Sátpuras, the grander alternations of scenery are even more frequent. 'The hills are higher and more abrupt, the black-soil deposits deeper, and the water-supply more abundant. In the midst of the grim rolling plateaux of basalt lurk little valleys cultivated like gardens,—oases of sugar-cane and opium,—which, but for their inaccessibility, would tempt away the best cultivators of the plains.' The rivers, with their rapid streams and limpid waters, lend a singular charm to the Province. Such is the sacred NARBADA, as it dashes through the glens, and leaps in wild waterfalls from the heights of Amarkantak, its bright waters glistening against the black basaltic rock, or as it winds along the narrow channel between the glittering 'Marble Rocks,' or works itself into the whirlpool of Makrái; and such are the WARDHA and WAINGANGA, foaming, after the rains, in torrents along their deep and rocky beds; and the GODAVARI, where it forces a passage through the heart of the mountains which formerly marked the

frontier of the Province. At this point the Godávarí may justly claim the title of the Indian Rhine. Pent in for 20 miles between the hills, the river flows in a deep and narrow channel, with a fierce current that sometimes lashes itself into boiling whirlpools, till, escaping from its prison, it spreads itself in a broad smooth surface, and, flowing on in a mighty stream, leaves the Central Provinces behind. To the east, in Bhandárá and parts of Chándá District, lies the lake country of the Province.

'There,' says Sir R. Temple, 'an irrigation tank is not a piece of water with regular banks, crowned with rows or avenues of trees, with an artificial dyke and sluices, and with fields around it, but it is an irregular expanse of water; its banks are formed by rugged hills, covered with low forests that fringe the margins where the wild beasts repair to drink; its dykes, mainly shaped out of spurs from the hills, are thrown athwart the hollows, a part only being formed by masonry; its sluices often consist of chasms or fissures in the rock; its broad surface is often, as the monsoon approaches, lashed into surging and crested waves.' NAWAGAON, the largest of these lakes, is 17 miles in circumference, with a depth in places of 90 feet. Nor have the Hindus failed to appreciate the beauties of the country. Wherever, as at BHERAGHAT, a splendid view unfolds itself; wherever, as at Muktagiri, the plash of a waterfall echoes through the trees,—there in all likelihood rises an ancient temple. The spirit of the old nature-worship yet lives in the legends that consecrate these lovely scenes.

Forests.—The Central Provinces cover an area of 113,279 square miles, of which little more than one-third is under cultivation. Yet the forests are not so important as might have been expected. The greater part of the waste land is covered by scrub jungle, and produces but little valuable timber. Nature may have doomed the stony highlands to barrenness, but the improvidence of man has desolated many of the fertile tracts. Each most valuable tree has had its special enemy. The teak fell before the ravages of the charcoal-burner, who found that its close-grained wood produced the most concentrated fuel. The *sál* (Shorea robusta), when tapped, supplies an excellent resin; and many a noble tree has consequently been girdled and left to perish. But still more destructive has proved the habit of *dáhya* or nomad cultivation, now fortunately on the wane, by means of which clearances are made by firing the forest and jungle. At present, the northern part of the Province is almost destitute of tree forests. In the south, amid the scanty population in the hill chiefships which border the Nágpur and Chhatísgarh plains, the forests have suffered least. Under the system of conservancy introduced in 1860, considerable progress has been made in arresting the course of destruction. The woodland is divided into reserved forests, under the special control and

management of the Forest Department, with an aggregate area in 1882–83 of 2588 square miles; and 17,131 square miles of unreserved or excess wastes, which, at the Settlement, Government retained for itself. These latter are managed by the District officers. Experience shows that wherever fire is kept out of the forests, the power of natural reproduction may be relied upon. In 1882–83, an attempt was made to protect 912,927 acres; and actual protection from fire was afforded to 889,968 acres. The total cost amounted to £1557, the average being £1, 2s. 6d. per square mile.

Coal.—The large coal-fields which extend under various parts of the Central Provinces, and the excellence of the iron-ores, gave rise to expectations which at present seem unlikely to be realized. For the most part, on analysis, the coal has proved of inferior quality. It contains neither sufficient fixed carbon for iron-smelting, nor combustible volatile gases to such an amount as to adapt it for generating steam. At present the only important colliery is that at Warorá, which turned out 88,417 tons of fair quality in 1882. Production of coal has largely increased of late years in consequence of the consumption of this coal by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company.

Iron.—The Central Provinces is also rich in its iron-ores, particularly in Chándá District, and a scientific examination into the resources of this District was conducted in 1881–82 by Ritter von Schwarz, a gentleman of great experience in iron-mining in Austria, and his report promises favourably for the future. He considered that with the construction of an ironwork at Dungárpur, and the erection of more blast furnaces, there was no reason to doubt that Chándá District alone was capable of turning out 260,000 tons of iron or steel yearly. He reported further that, besides supplying India with much of her steel and iron requirements, Chándá was able to open out an export trade with England in articles which were now imported from the Continent, particularly in Ferro-manganese and Brescian steel.

History.—The early history of the Province consists entirely of the conjectural interpretation of fragmentary inscriptions, which record the names of unknown princes, and relate their deeds with oriental hyperbole. We learn how their beneficence made earth better than heaven, how the world trembled at the march of their elephants, and how the sea was swollen by the tears of queens widowed by their conquests. But from this source little positive knowledge can be obtained. It seems established that in the 5th century a race of foreign (*Yavana*) origin ruled from the Sátpura plateau. Again, between the 10th and 13th centuries, we can discern a distinguished line of Lunar Rájput princes governing the country round Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), while a territory south of the Sátpuras was held by the fire-descended Pramára princes of Málwá. The Chándá dynasty of Gonds probably

rose to power as early as the 10th or 11th century; and the Haihai-Bansí kings of Chhatísgarh trace their origin to the remotest antiquity.

Before, however, we leave this dim and misty borderland, and pass into the realms of history, we are confronted by a problem which deserves some notice. Who were the Gaulís? Were the historical Gond kingdoms preceded by a race of shepherd kings? On the Sátpura plateau, in Nimár and Ságar (Saugor) Districts, and in parts of the Nágpur Division, every ruin of an unknown age, every legend that cannot be traced to Hindu mythology, is assigned to the Gaulí princes. Of these shadowy personages the most striking is Asá, the Ahír chief, whose story Ferishta relates. Towards the close of the 14th century, there dwelt on the summit of a lofty hill in Khándesh a rich herdsman chief, whose ancestors had held their estates for 700 years. He had ten thousand cattle, twenty thousand sheep, and a thousand mares. His followers numbered two thousand, and he had built himself a strong fortress. But the people, to whom his benevolence had endeared him, still called him by the familiar name of Asá the Ahír (herdsman), and thus his fort has received the name of Asígarh. It is, however, with regard to Deogarh that the Gaulí traditions gather most consistence. Deogarh was, it is said, the last seat of Gaulí power; and the names yet survive of the successive chiefs, until Játbá, the favourite and minister of Mansúr and Gansúr, the two last Gaulí princes, murdered his benefactors, and founded the Gond dynasty of Deogarh.

But whatever importance we may be disposed to attach to the legendary Gaulís, the history proper of Gondwáná only begins in the 16th century. Ferishta indeed mentions a line of princes, whether Gond or not is uncertain, who reigned at Kherlá on the Sátpura plateau, and enjoyed 'great wealth and power, being possessed of all the hills of Gondwáná and other countries.' They first appear in 1398 A.D.; and for a brief space they succeeded in maintaining a precarious independence, by playing off the rulers of Málwá and the Báhmani kings against each other. But, in 1467, Kherlá fell before the Báhmani power, and, after a last expiring effort, the Kherlá dynasty disappears from history. In the next century the Gonds asserted themselves with more lasting success. As the Muhammadan power of Málwá gradually decayed, Sangrám Sáh, the forty-eighth Rájá of the Gond line of Garhá-Mandlá, issued from the Mandlá highlands, and extended his dominion over 52 *gárhs*, comprising the present District of Ságar (Saugor), Damoh, Hoshangábád, Narsinghpur, and Jabalpur, besides Mandlá and Seoní.

In the 16th century, also, the immemorial Haihai-Bansí line of Chhatísgarh emerges into the light of history; and in the succeeding century, the Gond princes of Deogarh transformed themselves from obscure aboriginal chiefs into a powerful Muhammadan dynasty. From

the rise of the Gond power until the advent of the Maráthás, Gondwáná enjoyed practical independence. The Gonds willingly owned the supremacy of the Emperor at Delhi, and the distant monarch wisely contented himself with nominally including in his dominions the wild and rugged country of the Gonds. With all its drawbacks, this was a happy period for Gondwáná. The people prospered under a rude feudal system; and the tanks and tombs and palaces, and above all the battlemented stone walls, long since too wide for the shrunken city within, testify to the ability and beneficence of the princes. Indeed, the rulers appear to have been in advance of their subjects; and much of the improvement then effected arose from the prudent liberality with which the wiser Rájás encouraged Hindu husbandmen to settle on the land. But the invasion of the Maráthás abruptly ended the peaceful progress of Gondwáná. In the ten years from 1741 to 1751, the Bhonsla family established its dominion over the three kingdoms of Deogarh, Chándá, and Chhatísgarh, while the last Gond dynasty, that of Garhá-Mandlá, fell before the same race in 1781.

The founders of the Maráthá power had the virtues as well as the vices of military leaders; and at first the Gond people felt the effect of the conquest less than their feudal chiefs. But in the end of the 18th century, the Maráthás began to suffer from the want of money, and every variety of fiscal expedient was contrived to grind taxes from the unfortunate people. In short, a poor man could neither shelter nor clothe himself, nor earn his bread, nor eat it, nor marry, nor rejoice, nor even ask his gods for better weather, without contributing on each individual act to the necessities of his alien rulers. This oppression brought about its natural result. The ruined husbandman forsook his farm, and joined the robber-bands that wandered through the country. By degrees these increased in number; and from their standing camps in the Narbadá valley, a marauding cavalry, under the name of Pindárís, spread desolation over the land. Encumbered neither by tents nor baggage, and riding in parties of two or three thousand, they carried fire and sword wherever they went, even to the gates of the capital. So lasting has proved the terror they inspired, that to this day there are places in the valley of the Wardhá where the shopkeepers will not publicly expose their goods. Thus, harassed in every way, the country had become utterly exhausted when, in 1818, Apá Sáhib was finally deposed. At that time the English annexed the region since known as the Ságar (Saugor) and Narbadá (Nerbudda) territories, while undertaking the management of what remained of the Bhonsla kingdom during the minority of Raghují III. Raghují attained his majority in 1830; but on his death in 1853, without a child, his dominions lapsed to the British Government. At first, it may be that the administration

erred in overrating the resources of the country; but under the more lenient assessment of later years an era of prosperity has begun.

In 1860, the Nizám ceded a strip of territory on the left bank of the Godávarí, formerly styled the Upper Godávarí District, consisting of 6 *táluks*, namely, Sironcha, Naogáon, Albaka, Cherla, Bhadráchalam, and Rákapalli. The two last-named *táluks* were transferred to Madras in 1874. The four first-named are still attached to the Central Provinces, and now form a Sub-division of Chándá District. In 1861, the 'Central Provinces' were formed by the union of the Ságar (Saugor) and Narbadá (Nerbudda) territories with the Nágpur Province. In 1864, the new administration obtained an accession of territory by the addition of Nimár District; and in the following year it received a further accretion of 700 square miles of country, which formerly constituted the Native State of BIJERAGHOGARH in Central India, but had been confiscated in 1857.

Population.—The table on page 304 exhibits the area, population, etc., of each of the British Districts and Native States included within the Central Provinces, as disclosed by the Census of 1881.

The 15 Native States are attached to 5 British Districts, although they are under the direct administration of their own chiefs. Makrái, with an area of 215 square miles, is attached to Hoshangábád District; while the largest State, Bastár, 13,062 square miles, is attached to Chándá. The remaining 13 are attached to the three Districts of the Chhatísgarh Division—namely, Chhuikadán, Kánker, Khairágarh; and Nandgáon, with an aggregate area of 2658 square miles, to Ráipur District; Kawardhá and Sakti, with an area of 1002 square miles, to Bilápur District; and Kaláhandí, Ráigarh, Sárangarh, Patná, Sonpur, Rairákhol, and Bámra, with an aggregate area of 11,897 square miles, to Sambalpur District. Including Feudatory States, the average area of each District is 6293 square miles, the smallest being Narsinghpur (1916 square miles), the four largest being Chándá (23,847 square miles), Sambalpur (16,418 square miles), Ráipur (14,543 square miles), and Bilápur (8800 square miles). Excluding Feudatory States, the average area of each District is 4691 square miles, the 5 largest Districts being—Ráipur (11,885 square miles), Chándá (10,785 square miles), Bilápur (7798 square miles), Mandlá (4719 square miles), and Sambalpur (4521 square miles). Total area of Native States, 28,834 square miles; population (1881), 1,709,720; average density, 59·3 per square mile.

The area of the Central Provinces in 1881 (including Native States) was less by 886 square miles than the area returned in 1872, owing to the transfer to the Madras Presidency in 1874 of the Bhadráchalam and Rákapalli *táluks* of the former Upper Godávarí District. The actual difference, however, proves to be only 518 square miles, on account of

[*Sentence continued on p.* 305.

CENSUS OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES (1881).

BRITISH DISTRICTS.

Division.	District or State.	Area in square miles.	Number of towns and villages.	Number of occupied houses.	Population. Total population.	Population. Males.	Population. Females.	Density per square mile.	Inmates per house.
Nagpur.	Nágpur, . . .	3,786	1682	145,593	697,356	351,756	345,600	184	4·8
	Bhandárá, . .	3,922	1616	133,056	683,779	340,811	342,968	174	5·1
	Chándá, . . .	10,785	2804	148,135	649,146	326,824	322,322	60	4·4
	Wardhá, . . .	2,401	908	85,044	387,221	195,564	191,657	161	4·5
	Bálághát, . .	3,146	1211	69,034	340,554	168,830	171,724	108	4·9
	Total, . .	24,040	8221	580,862	2,758,056	1,383,785	1,374,271	115	4·7
Jabalpur.	Jabalpur, . .	3918	2310	174,512	687,233	349,251	337,982	175	3·9
	Ságar, . . .	4005	1842	130,409	564,950	294,795	270,155	141	4·3
	Dámoh, . . .	2799	1146	70,276	312,957	162,570	150,387	112	4·5
	Seoní, . . .	3247	1463	67,104	334,733	167,925	166,808	103	4·9
	Mandlá, . . .	4719	1751	61,779	301,760	153,542	148,218	64	4·8
	Total, . .	18,688	8512	504,080	2,201,633	1,128,083	1,073,550	118	4·3
Narbadá.	Hoshangábád, .	4437	1536	102,863	488,787	252,493	236,294	110	4·7
	Narsinghpur, .	1916	987	79,765	365,173	186,635	178,538	191	4·6
	Betúl, . . .	3905	1172	58,603	304,905	154,426	150,479	78	5·2
	Chhindwárá, .	3915	1833	73,621	372,899	186,168	186,731	95	5·1
	Nimár, . . .	3340	627	48,592	231,341	121,008	110,333	69	4·8
	Total, . .	17,513	6155	363,444	1,763,105	900,730	862,375	101	4·8
Chhatísgarh.	Ráipur, . . .	11,885	4743	446,651	1,405,171	696,242	708,929	118	3·1
	Biláspur, . .	7,798	3724	281,580	1,017,327	504,046	513,281	130	3·6
	Sambalpur, . .	4,521	3257	160,359	693,499	346,549	346,950	153	4·3
	Total, . .	24,204	11,724	888,590	3,115,997	1,546,837	1,569,160	129	3·5
Total of British Districts, . . .		84,445	34,612	2,336,976	9,838,791	4,959,435	4,879,356	116	4·2

NATIVE STATES.

District or State.	Area in square miles.	Number of towns and villages.	Number of occupied houses.	Total population.	Males.	Females.	Density per square mile.	Inmates per house.
Kalahándí or Karond, ...	3,745	2,461	53,527	224,548	116,918	107,630	60	4·2
Ráigarh, ...	1,486	685	23,282	128,943	64,767	64,176	87	5·5
Sárangarh, ...	540	438	25,406	71,274	35,221	36,053	132	2·8
Patná, ...	2,399	1,591	50,841	257,959	131,570	126,389	107	5·1
Sonpur, ...	906	869	25,521	178,701	90,012	88,689	197	7·0
Ráirakhol, ...	833	199	3,349	17,750	9,021	8,729	21	5·3
Bámra, ...	1,988	632	14,828	81,286	41,761	39,525	41	5·5
Saktí, ...	115	117	3,955	22,819	11,352	11,467	198	5·8
Kawardhá, ...	887	389	28,369	86,362	42,706	43,656	97	3·0
Chhuíkadán or Kondká, . . .	174	109	9,669	32,979	16,267	16,712	189	3·4
Kánker, ...	639	436	16,142	63,610	32,131	31,479	99	3·9
Kháiragarh, . . .	940	512	30,392	166,138	82,677	83,461	176	5·5
Nandgáon, . . .	905	541	48,351	164,339	81,717	82,622	182	3·4
Makrái, ...	215	59	3,380	16,764	8,521	8,243	78	4·9
Bastár, ...	13,062	2,204	38,271	196,248	103,046	93,202	15	5·1
Total Native States,	28,834	11,242	375,283	1,709,720	867,687	842,033	59	4·6
Grand Total Central Provinces, . .	113,279	45,854	2,712,259	11,548,511	5,827,122	5,721,389	102	4·2

Sentence continued from p. 303.]
short entries in 1872 of the areas of certain Districts, which were afterwards detected and rectified. Making due allowance for the transfer of the *táluks* to Madras, the population of the British Districts, which in 1872 was returned at 8,173,824, amounted in 1881 to 9,838,791, showing an increase of 1,664,967, or 20·37 per cent., in the 9 years. In the Feudatory States in 1872, the population was returned at 1,049,710, and in 1881 to 1,709,720, showing an increase of 660,010, or 62·88 per cent. Taking British Districts and Feudatory States together, the population in 1872 was returned at 9,223,534, and in 1881 at 11,548,511, being an increase of 2,324,977, or 25·21 per cent. This enormous increase is due to various causes. In the first place, it is more apparent than real, and is largely made up, especially in the Feudatory States, by the increased accuracy of the Census of 1881 over that of 1872. Among other causes of increase, setting aside the natural increment of births over deaths, are the attraction of labourers to the lines of railway under construction, and the increased facilities to immigration afforded by fresh communications, and the opening up of the country. Large numbers of famine refugees, who flocked into the Districts during scarcities, have now settled down permanently, and become prosperous cultivators.

Religion.—Including British Districts and Feudatory States, the Census of 1881 thus exhibited the classification of the population according to religion:—Hindus, 8,703,110; Sikhs, 99; Kabírpanthís, 347,994; Satnámís, 398,409; Kumbhipáthiás, 913; Muhammadans, 285,687; Christians, 11,973; Buddhists, 17; Bráhmos, 7; Jains, 45,911; Jews, 63; Pársís, 399; aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive faiths, 1,753,917; unspecified, 12. The British Districts, with their area of 84,445 square miles, and population of 9,838,791, are thus returned according to religion: Hindus, 7,317,830; Sikhs, 97; Kabírpanthís, 294,474; Satnámís, 358,161; Kumbhipáthiás, 692; Jains, 45,718; Muhammadans, 275,773; Christians, 11,949; Pársís, 399; Jews, 63; Buddhists, 17; Bráhmos, 7; non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 33,599; and unspecified, 12.

Aborigines.—The Sátpura plateau, stretching east and west for nearly 600 miles, with the wheat fields of the Narbadá valley on the one hand, and the rice lands of the Nágpur plain on the other, forms the true barrier between Northern and Southern India. In this natural fastness the so-called aboriginal tribes have found refuge, retreating on either side before the waves of Aryan immigration which swept forward from the Deccan and from Hindustán. Army after army invaded the Deccan, and Hindu dynasties rose and fell; but the forests of Gondwáná lay apart from the line of march; and while the ravages of war wasted the rich cities of the plains, the refugees were slowly gathering

strength and confidence. By degrees they issued from the Sátpura hills, and occupied the rich valleys beneath. But the superiority of the Aryan race manifested itself in peace as in war; and step by step the aboriginal tribes were driven back a second time to the stony uplands, as the Hindu farmers in increasing numbers cleared the fertile plains below. Those who remained were absorbed by the higher race, and now form the lowest stratum of the Hindu social system.

Though Gondwáná comprised the greater part of the Central Provinces, the non-Aryan tribes now form a minority of the population. The Census of 1881 returned their total number, including those who have embraced Hinduism, as well as those who still adhere to their primitive deities, at 2,776,356, of whom 2,163,241 inhabited British territory, and 613,115 the Feudatory States. The proportion of these tribes to the total population of each District varies from 55·58 in Mandlá, to only 2·28 in Nimár. Though the term 'aborigines' is commonly applied to them, it must be remembered that this is merely a convenient expression, serving to distinguish the tribes in question from races of Aryan descent. In the gravels and clays which apparently mark the Miocene and the Pliocene periods, remains of animals now extinct in India co-exist with the bones of others still found in the Central Provinces. Of later date, however, and scattered through the upper soils of large areas, agate knives and implements have been dug up in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Nágpur country; and to a yet later epoch belong the polished celts, axes, and other shaped stone implements, which exactly resemble those abundantly found in Northern Europe. Beyond these indications, we know nothing of any inhabitants of the Provinces who may have preceded the so-called aboriginal tribes. These consist of a southern and a northern section, distinguished as the Dravidian and the Kolarian races. From their curious intermixture within a limited area, Mr. Hislop concludes that the Dravidians, entering India by the north-west, here crossed the stream of Kolarian immigrants from the north-east. One of the Gond hymns, which he has preserved, relates how the Gonds were created near Mount Diwálagiri in the Himálayas; how their gluttonous and impure habits caused a foul odour to arise, which offended the nostrils of Mahádeva; and how Mahádeva, while bathing, made a squirrel out of part of his body, and sent it to flee with tail erect before the Gonds. The Gonds pursued the squirrel, and followed it into a cave, which was the god's prison on earth. Then Mahádeva arose and placed a stone 16 cubits long at the entrance of the cave, and stationed a giant to guard it. But four brothers had remained behind. They travelled on over hill and dale, till by the jungly road they reached Káchikopa Lohárgarh, the Iron valley in the Red Hills. There they found a giant, who was at first inclined to eat them; but

becoming pacified, gave them his seven daughters in marriage. From these unions sprang the present Gond race. This legend, at any rate, is consistent with the theory that the Gonds entered the country from the north, and intermarried with the inhabitants they found there.

Pointing to the same conclusion is the fact, that till lately they buried their dead with the feet turned northward, so that the corpse might be ready to be borne to the home of its people. But apart from these speculations, the Gonds justly claim attention as in some degree a progressive race, which, with Aryan peoples all around, succeeded in forming and upholding for 200 years an independent power, and which still maintains its separate nationality. From the upper classes, indeed, the pure Gond is rapidly disappearing. Most of the so-called Gond chiefs, and of the families which call themselves 'Ráj-Gond' or 'Royal Gond,' are of mixed blood, though with the aboriginal type still dominant. Yet, while they outdo the Hindus themselves in ceremonial refinements, purifying even their faggots before using them for cooking, they retain a taint of their old mountain superstitions; some still seek to atone for their desertion of the gods of their fathers, by worshipping them in secret once every four or five years, and by placing cow's flesh to their lips, wrapped in a cloth, so as not to break too openly with the Hindu divinities. But the plebeian or Dhúr-Gond is generally of purer blood, owing to the contempt with which the Hindus regard him. The lowest of the Hindu castes ranks above him, and only the Mhárs and Dhers take place beneath him in the social scale. To him the contact of a higher civilisation has brought harm rather than good. Amid a Hindu population, his stalwart limbs make him a useful drudge, but his spirit is broken, and his old frankness has vanished. In the highlands, however, the Gond, less contaminated by Hindu influence, appears to greater advantage.

In the Feudatory State of Bastár, the hill tribes constitute at least three-fifths of the population. There the Máriás form the most numerous caste. The Máriá carries a small iron knife in his girdle, and a hatchet hangs from his shoulders; but his favourite weapon is the bow. This is made of bamboo; and a strip of the bark of the same useful plant, secured by cords to the ends, supplies the bowstring; the arrows are of many forms, but all pointed with iron. The Máriás are skilful archers; they use the feet to bend the bow, while they draw the string with both hands, sending an arrow almost through the body of a deer. The Márís are still wilder, and invariably fly from their grass-built huts on the approach of strangers. Once a year, an officer collects their tribute for the Rájá, which is paid in kind. He beats a *tom-tom* outside the village, and forthwith hides himself; whereupon the inhabitants bring out whatever they have to give, and deposit it in an appointed spot. The customs

of the different hill tribes are very similar. The Bhíls, indeed, are singular in the jealousy they exhibit about the honour of their women. The Halbás, who in Bastár make their living by distilling spirits, and worship a pantheon of glorified distillers, have, unlike the other wild tribes, settled down in Ráipur as successful cultivators, holding their own in the open country.

Physical Appearance, etc.—Nearly all the hill tribes have the black skin, the flat nose, and the thick lips, which at once proclaim them of other than Aryan blood. Nearly all dress in the same way. For both sexes, a cloth wound about the waist constitutes the chief article of attire. Necklaces of beads, ear-rings of brass and iron, brass bracelets, and girdles of *towrís* or twisted cords, find favour in the eyes of young men and women. The latter often add chaplets of the large white seeds of the *kusa* grass, or even a cloth flung carelessly across the shoulder. They seldom wear any covering on the head; and some, as the Máriás, shave away the hair, leaving only a top knot. The ladies, however, commonly add to their attractions by wearing false hair. In the hymn already cited, the god alleges as one cause of his displeasure against the first created Gonds, that they did not bathe for six months together. It must be confessed that in this respect the hill-tribes of to-day do not belie their ancestry; and though they carry their scanty costume with a certain grace, their dirtiness, and the tattoo marks on their faces, arms, and thighs, have a repellent effect on European observers. For the most part light-hearted and easy-tempered, when once their shyness is overcome, they prove exceedingly communicative; but while naturally frank, and far more truthful than Hindus, they are nevertheless arrant thieves, though their pilfering is generally managed in the simplest and most maladroit manner. All are fond of music, particularly the Gadbhás, who celebrate their festivals by dancing to the sound of a drum and a fife. Sometimes they form a ring by joining hands, and advance in step towards the centre, and again retire while circling round and round. When wearied with dancing, they sing. A man steps out of the crowd, and sings a verse *impromptu;* a woman rejoins, and the pair chant in alternate strains, for the most part rallying each other on personal defects. All are addicted to drinking. In short, so slight are the differences between the various hill tribes, that in Chándá, where the forest country meets the more civilised plain, the Gonds, as the highest class among them, are recruited from the wilder clans; and the ambitious Máriá styles himself first a Koitúr, then a Forest or Jungly Gond, and at last, as time goes on, claims the dignity of a Gond pure and simple.

The indolence and improvidence of uncivilised peoples manifests itself especially in the manner in which these hill tribes cultivate the soil. The husbandman who practises the *dáhya* system first

seeks on the hill-slope for a new piece of ground. This he clears of jungle, and then covers it over with logs of wood, heaping up smaller brushwood on the top. Just before the rains, when the hot weather has thoroughly dried the newly-cut wood, he sets fire to the pile. After the first rainfall, he scatters the millet, or other inferior grain, among the ashes; or, where the ground is steep, merely throws the seed in a lump along the top of the plot, and leaves it to be washed to its place by the rains. This facile mode of husbandry, now happily less practised than formerly, has not only tended to discourage all habits of settled industry, but must be held responsible for the ruin which has overtaken so many of the once magnificent forests of the Central Provinces.

Most different accounts have been given of the Gond religion. Mr. Hislop thinks that their pantheon consists of fifteen gods. At Betúl, it is said, the Gonds count at least twelve religious sects, distinguished by the number of deities they respectively worship. The usual number is seven; but the lowest caste adores an indefinite number, being those which chanced to be omitted when the original distribution of gods to each sect took place. But the fact is, that the religious beliefs of these tribes vary from village to village; and nowhere has their theological system attained such a pitch of precision as to enable them to exactly define the number of their gods. While admitting the existence of other deities, each village worships those of whom it happens to be cognizant; and these seldom exceed three or four in number. In Mandlá, Thákur Deo is held in great reverence. He is the household god, presiding over the homestead and the farmyard; and, being omnipresent, requires no image to represent him. The people of the village of Játá, however, have the happiness to possess a few links of an ancient chain in which the god manifests himself. Gifted with the power of motion, this chain sometimes appears hanging from a *ber* tree, sometimes on a stone below, sometimes in the bed of a neighbouring watercourse. Each of these movements is duly made the occasion of some humble sacrifice, to the advantage of the attendant Báigá priest.

In many places Ghansyám Deo is greatly adored. His worshippers build for him a rude hut about a hundred yards from the village. In one corner they plant a bamboo with a red or yellow rag tied to the end; and, hanging up a withered garland or two, and strewing about the floor a few blocks of rough stone smeared with vermilion, they dedicate the place to Ghansyám Deo. There every November the whole village assembles to worship, with sacrifices of fowls and spirits, or even a pig. Presently the god descends on the head of one of the worshippers, who staggers to and fro, bereft of his senses, till he wildly rushes into the jungle. Then, happy that a scapegoat has been found for the sins of the village, the people send two or three men

after him, who bring the fugitive back. Throughout the Central Provinces the Gonds worship cholera and small-pox, under the names of Márí and Mátá Deví. To appease the wrath of these divinities, they offer sacrifices; and, cleaning their villages, they place the sweepings on a road or track, in the hope that some traveller will be infected, and so convey the disease away into another village. But in addition to his gods, the Gond peoples the forest in which he lives with spirits of all kinds, most of them able and only too willing to inflict evil upon him. To propitiate them, he sets up *páts*, consisting of a bamboo, with a piece of rag tied to the end, a heap of stones, or the like. There the spirit takes up his abode, and then, at each festival in the family, the spirit has his share of the banquet.

The Báigás, with whom some authorities identify the Bháimiás, are the acknowleged priests of the hill tribes. Physically finer men than the ordinary Gond, and suspassing him in courage and skill as sportsmen, they have won for themselves a respect which is rarely abused; and in any question, whether of a religious observance or of a boundary dispute, their decision is final. When a Gond falls victim to a tiger, the Báigá is called in to lay the spirit of the dead, and to charm away the additional power which the tiger has derived from his prey. The Báigá goes through certain movements, representing the tiger in his fatal spring; and, lastly, takes up with his teeth a mouthful of the blood-stained earth. This done, the jungle is free again. While worshipping the same gods as the Gonds, the Báigás have a special reverence for Mái Dharitrí—mother earth.

How far serpent-worship prevailed in Gondwáná has given rise to much speculation. The Gond of to-day would be more likely to eat a snake than to worship it. But traces of a serpent cult yet remain, the most curious of these being the ancient temple of Buram Devá in Chhatísgarh. It contains no image but that of a cobra, near which are two inscriptions, one being a list of twenty-two kings, who trace their descent to the union of a snake with the daughter of a holy man who lived south of the Narbadá. The name of Nágpur, and the number of non-Aryan families which claim a Nágbansí connection, seems to show that snake-worship formerly existed in Gondwáná. Probably it was never more than an aristocratic cult, confined to certain houses. As its practice ceased, the claim to serpent descent died out as well, and the existing Nágbansí families have become, or aspire to be, Rájputs.

That the shy and timid hill tribes should be capable of offering human sacrifices has appeared incredible to some writers; but the custom has existed at certain places within the memory of the present generation. In the temples of Kálí in Chándá and Lánjí, and in the famous shrine of Danteswarí in Bastár, many a human head has been presented on the altar. The victim was taken to the temple after sun-

set, and shut up within its dismal walls. In the morning when the door was opened, he was found dead, to the glory of the great goddess, who had shown her power during the night by descending to suck his blood.

Births and marriages are celebrated by some peculiar customs, and no ceremony is reckoned complete without a drinking bout. The pretended abduction of the bride forms part of the wedding ceremony. Sometimes a visitor will serve for his wife during a stated number of years, after the manner of Jacob; but more frequently the wife is purchased by the bridegroom. For this reason, the cheaper plan of marrying a near relation finds favour with the poor or frugal lover. As a rule, the Gonds bury their dead, and sometimes kill a cow over the grave; but the more prosperous families now sometimes burn an adult corpse, after the manner of the Hindus. 'Waking' the dead forms an important part of the funeral rites.

Hindu Population.—The gradual displacement of the hill tribes in one of their last refuges by Hindu races is clearly shown by the simple fact that, whereas the so-called aborigines (outside Hindu influences) number less than two millions, the Hindus, in 1881, numbered 8,703,110, thus forming 75·36 per cent. of the inhabitants of the Central Provinces, including Native States. The denser the population, the greater is the proportion of Hindus, varying from 83·39 per cent. in the Nágpur plain and Wardhá valley to 56·57 per cent. on the Sátpura plateau.

A few isolated hermits were the first Aryans who ventured to invade these central forests; and the Rámáyaná laments the sufferings these holy men endured amid the savage tribes. 'These shapeless and ill-looking monsters testify their abominable character by various cruel and terrific displays. These base-born wretches implicate the hermits in impure practices, and perpetrate the greatest outrages. Changing their shapes and hiding in the thickets adjoining the hermitages, these frightful beings delight in terrifying the devotees. They cast away the sacrificial ladles and vessels, they pollute the cooked oblations, and utterly defile the offerings with blood. These faithless creatures inject frightful sounds into the ears of the faithful and austere eremites. At the time of sacrifice, they snatch away the jars, the flowers, the fuel, and the sacred grass of these sober-minded men.' But though ruled by Rájput chiefs at an earlier period, the country was not really opened out to Hindu settlement till the time of Akbar, whose armies penetrated to the easternmost parts of the valley of the Narbadá. The oldest rupees found buried here date from this reign. The mass, however, of the Hindu population is of later date, and may probably be referred to the time of Aurangzeb. Between the Hindus north and those south of the Sátpuras the contrast both in character and appearance is striking.

The Maráthá of the Nágpur rice-lands has neither the energy nor the independence of the peasant who tills the wheat-fields by the Narbadá; and on a festal day, when a southern crowd presents a mass of white clothing and enormous red turbans, the more northern people may be known by their costume of *mahua* green, and their jaunty head-dress of white cloth.

Local Sects.—While worshipping the usual divinities of the Hindu pantheon, the Hindus of the Central Provinces, more especially the Jháriás, or older settlers, have contracted various local beliefs and habits. The adoration of the dead prevails universally. Thus, in Hoshangábád, the Ghorí (Muhammadan) kings of Málwá have attained the dignity of gods, while near Bhandárá the villagers worship at the tomb of an English lady. Most castes place little or no restriction on widow-marriage, and generally the marriage tie is but little regarded, illegitimate children succeeding to property equally with those born in wedlock. But the non-Aryan belief in the powers of evil especially dominates the conquering race. Throughout the Province, Mátá Deví, the goddess of small-pox, is held in veneration. The prevalence of witchcraft also presses heavily on the Hindu. So infested by witches was the wild hill country from Mandlá to the eastern coast, that at one time no prudent father would let his daughter marry into a family which did not count among its members at least one of the dangerous sisterhood. Even now, should a man's bullock die, his crop fail, or sickness befall him, he imputes the calamity to witchcraft. The suspected sorcerer in such a case is arrested, and a fisherman's net being wound about his head to prevent him from bewitching his guards, his innocence is tested by the flicker of a flame or the fall of a *pípal* leaf. In Bastár this ordeal is followed by sewing him up in a sack, and letting him down into water waist-deep. If he succeeds in raising his head above water, his guilt is held manifest. Then the villagers beat the culprit with rods of tamarind or the castor-oil plant, and shave his head. Lastly, they knock out his teeth, so that the witch can neither mutter charms nor revenge himself by assuming the form of a tiger.

The Satnámís.—Perhaps the most interesting movement among the Hindus of the Province is the religious and social uprising of the Chamárs of Chhatísgarh. Upper India contains no more despised race. In the distribution of employments nothing had been left to them but the degrading handicraft of skinning dead cattle. But in the plain of Chhatísgarh the want of labour had admitted them to the rank of cultivators, and prepared them to break the humiliating tradition. About fifty years ago, Ghásí Dás, an unlettered but remarkable visionary, withdrew into the wilderness, after bidding his followers meet him in six months' time at Girod. Thither, on the appointed day, the

Chamárs crowded, and, in the quiet of the early morning, the prophet appeared descending from the rocky height above the village. There he delivered his message from heaven. He proclaimed that all men are equal; he forbade the worship of idols; and he named himself as the high priest of the new faith, adding that the office would remain in his family for ever. On the death of Ghásí Dás, his eldest son, Bálak Dás, succeeded to the primacy; and such was the enmity excited among the Hindus, that he was murdered in 1860. Nearly all the Chamárs of Chhatísgarh have accepted the new religion, adopting the name of Satnámís. They have no temple or form of prayer; but every morning and evening they fall prostrate before the sun, exclaiming, 'Sat nám! Sat nám! Sat nám!' or, 'God! God! God!' They eat no meat, and drink only water; but a schism has arisen among them regarding the use of tobacco. In sexual matters their practice is lax; but the allegation that Satnámí brides associate with the high priest before entering their husbands' home is, they maintain, a calumny of their enemies. In 1881, the Satnámís numbered 398,409 in the Central Provinces. They form a loyal and industrious class of the population.

The Kabírpanthís, or followers of Kabír, a disciple of Rámánand, an apostle of Northern India, who lived in the 15th century, are numerous in the Central Provinces, where, however, they have given up that rejection of caste which was a fundamental tenet in the teachings of Kabír. Of the 347,994 persons enumerated as of the Kabírpanthí sect, 118,768 were returned as Pankás, and 83,014 as Telís by caste; the remainder including representatives from other castes, among which were 4438 Rájputs. The Kabírpanthís are most numerous in the Districts of Chhindwárá, Ráipur, and Biláspur. The following account of them is condensed from two papers furnished by Mr. Sadáshiv Vithal, Inspector of Schools, Chhindwárá, and Bábu Taradas Banarjí, B.A., pleader, Ráipur, and published in the Census Report for 1881:—Kabír preached the equality of man before God, denounced all caste distinctions and idol-worship, and addressed himself to Hindus and Muhammadans alike. But on the death of Kabír at Mugher, the religion promulgated by him underwent changes, and renunciation of caste ceased to be a preliminary of initiation. At present the chief ordinances of the faith as preached and practised in the Central Provinces, but with variations in different localities, are—(1) to avoid idol-worship; (2) to perform no pilgrimages to Hindu holy places; and (3) to avoid the use of flesh, or any kind of spirituous liquor. Although there is no absolute prohibition against the admission of any caste into the sect of the Kabírpanthís, there is now a tendency towards the exclusion of the lowest castes, and it is stated that the conversion of Chamárs is neither attempted nor allowed. The ceremony of the initiation is very simple. Persons who wish to be

ordinary Kabírpanthís are generally admitted to the faith at the residence of the local *mahant* or priest. A piece of ground having been cleaned and consecrated, the religious pass-word (*mantra*) is blown in the orthodox manner into the ear of the convert, and he is presented with some betel leaves and sweetmeats; a necklace of wooden beads is then placed round his neck, and he is not supposed to eat or drink thereafter without wearing this necklace. The convert then makes offerings to the *mahant*, according to his means. Those who become ascetics wear necklaces of a different pattern, and also wear a peaked skull-cap. These ascetics travel about asking alms and (those who can read) explaining their sacred books.

The chief *guru* or head of the faith in the Central Provinces resides at Kawardhá, the capital of a Feudatory State attached to Bilászpur District. He does not appear to be more learned than his disciples, and is said to be more careful of his own secular concerns than of the spiritual welfare of his followers. He appoints a certain number of deputies called *bhandáris* and *mahants* from the more advanced of his followers, who, after paying a good sum for the privilege, travel through the country, and recoup themselves by contributions from their own disciples, of whom they manage to get together a large number. They are not bound to observe celibacy, but numbers of them assume that state for the sake of the peculiar sanctity which the multitude ascribe to it. Unlike the Chamár Satnámís, all of whom follow some sort of a secular occupation, the Kabírpanthís include a considerable body who, though not professing celibacy like the Hindu *bairágís*, yet resemble them a good deal in their habits and customs. They go about in pairs, begging from door to door, reciting moral precepts in verse to the accompaniment of a single stringed instrument, resembling a guitar, and two pieces of black wood beaten one against the other to keep time. The Kabírpanthís profess allegiance to the *guru* at Kawardhá, but keep their earnings to themselves. They are generally well versed in the doctrines of their sect, and often enter into controversies with members of other sects, defending their position by quotations from the metrical polemics of Kabír, and annually converting a number of persons from the lower orders of Hindus. As Kabírism does not involve loss of caste, or any sort of social degradation; as it does not impose any wearisome or costly ceremonial; as its doctrines are more simple and better suited to the understanding of the masses than those of Hinduism; and as they are embodied in a series of simple Hindustání verses, easily understood and remembered by all, Kabírism has gone on increasing in strength and prosperity. It is worthy of note that in the Central Provinces, almost the whole of the Kabírpanthís are married, whereas in Northern India the greater part of them are vowed to celibacy.

The greater number of Kabírpanthís in the Central Provinces are the Pankás, Telís, and Gándás, which classes have adopted the religion *en masse*. But among other castes who have joined the fraternity are—Bráhmans (very few), Rájputs, Baniyás, Naus, Dhobís, and even Muhammadans. The Bráhmans and Rájputs are expelled from caste on their conversion to Kabírism, and thenceforward occupy the same position as is held by Hindu *bairágís*; and it is from them that the *bhandáris* and *mahants* are mostly selected. The Kabírpanthís of the present day recognise and retain caste distinctions as tenaciously as the most orthodox Hindus, and all ceremonies are performed by Hindu priests according to established ritual. Ordinarily, no Kabírpanthí of one caste will eat food cooked by a member of another, and it is only when they meet at Kawardhá on some festive occasion that the rule is somewhat relaxed. The different castes, of course, never intermarry. In their social relations, habits, and superstitions, the Kabírpanthís differ but slightly from the Satnámis.

The Kumbhipáthiás are a small sect peculiar in the Central Provinces to Sambalpur District and its attached Feudatory States, and number only 913 members. Their religion, which is of quite modern origin, appears to have sprung into existence in the Angúl and Dhenkánal States of Orissa as recently as 1866. The name of the founder of the religion is unknown, and its followers state that he is a formless spiritual being, who resides in heaven. His chief disciple Gobind Dás is dead; and another disciple Narsingh has erected a *math* or temple to his memory in Bankí. The sect has also another temple in Bankí at Malbahar. They have a religious book of predictions called *Malika*, and are divided into three sects—the Kumbhipáthiá Gosáins, the Kanapáthiá Gosáins, and Ashritas. The two former sects have renounced the world, and the followers of the one do not eat with those of the other. The third sect, the Ashritas, are not ascetics or celibates, nor are they turned out of caste. They look up to the other two sects as their *gurus* or spiritual guides, and follow their teaching. They bathe in the early morning, and prostrate themselves before the sun at the time of its rising and setting, never eating after sunset. Each sect has a separate temple or place of prayer. They recognise the Bhagavat, one of the Hindu religious books, but interpret it differently to the Hindus. They do not acknowledge the images of the Hindu gods, arguing that as no mortal has ever seen the Supreme Being, it is impossible to form his image. Although believing in the existence of the thirty-three crores of Hindu gods and goddesses, they do not worship or obey them, asserting that it is not necessary to obey the servant, but only the master. Their worship consists of prayer and praise to the immaterial Being, whom they call *Alekh*.

The Nánakpanthís are not numerous in the Central Provinces, and

are returned in the Census Report as a nonconformist sect of Hindus rather than as a separate religion. They follow the doctrines of Nának, the founder of the Sikh religion, who taught the people that prayer consisted in meditation on the Supreme Being, and that all external forms of worship were sinful. *Nám*, *Dán*, and *Snán* (the repetition of the holy name, the giving of charity, and cleanliness of body), form the essence of his teaching. Nának, who taught his principles 100 years after Kabír, respected the Vedas, and derived his tenets therefrom, but did not recognise the Sástras. Whilst the aim of Kabír was to leave one common religion for Hindus and Muhammadans alike, that of Nának was to popularize the teaching of the Vedas. Kabír denounced the Hindu incarnations as impostors, whilst Nának admitted that they were inspired men. The essence of the two religions is the same, with this difference, that Kabír's faith claims to be a religion by itself, whilst that of Nának may be said to be an offshoot of the Vedantic religion of the Hindus. The Nánakshahís are a devotee order within the Nánakpanthí sect.

The Singhapanthís are followers of Singhájí, a local saint, himself a Gaurí or herdsman by caste, in whose name Hindu temples have been erected in Hoshangábád and Nimár Districts, which are frequented by people of all castes. They are returned in the Census among the Hindus.

The Dhamís are a local sect found only in Dámoh and Ságar Districts, followers of Prannáth, and known also as Parnámis, who combine the reading of the Kurán with Hindu observances. They are also included in the Census among the Hindus.

Hindu Castes.—Of the recognised Hindus castes, the upper classes consist of Bráhmans, 359,886; Rájputs, 240,985; Káyasths, 32,034; Kalitá or Kulta, a cognate caste to the Kalitás of Assam, peculiar to Chutiá Nágpur and the Chhatísgarh Division of the Central Provinces, 92,827 in number; Baniyás or traders, 76,447. The lower Hindu castes, exceeding 50,000 in number, are the following, arranged according to number, and not according to social rank. Chamár, the most numerous but one of the lowest castes in the Central Provinces, skinners, leather dealers, agricultural labourers, etc., 760,101 in number, of whom about one-half belong to the Satnámí sect; Kurmí, the principal agricultural caste, 740,528; Telí, oil-pressers, cultivators, carters, etc., 632,934; Ahír, cattle-rearers and dairymen, cultivators, and farm-servants, 509,526; Mahár, weavers, day-labourers, village watchmen, grass-cutters, etc., 322,016; Lodhí, landholders and cultivators, 265,147; Gándá, weavers, cultivators, field labourers, etc., 250,133; Mehrá, weavers, cultivators, and village watchmen, 242,304; Gaurí, herdsmen, 214,936; Márár, gardeners and cultivators, 200,900; Dhimár, fishermen, silk rearers, domestic servants, water-carriers, etc., 194,453; Kewat or Keut, the

great fishing caste, also labourers, 165,591; Kallár, spirit distillers and sellers, 156,780; Panká, weavers, cultivators, field labourers, etc., 141,726; Nái, barber, 131,614; Koshtí, weavers, 129,559; Dhobí, washermen, 119,936; Kachhí, cultivators, chiefly of garden crops and sugar-cane, 116,677; Málí, gardeners, 115,821; Gaurí, cattle attendants, cartmen, cultivators, and field labourers, 110,363; Lohár, iron-smiths, 109,370; Ponwár, agriculturists of Rájput descent, 106,086; Kumbhár, potters, 89,201; Sonár, goldsmiths, 84,718; Barhai, carpenters, 66,396; Gujár, cultivators, 60,334; Gadariá, shepherds, 54,750; Banjárá, pack-bullock carriers and traders, 52,570.

Muhammadans.—Of the Muhammadan population in the Central Provinces, 259,608, or 94·14 per cent., were recorded as of the Sunní sect, and only 6772, or 2·46 per cent., as Shiás, 166 as Wahábís, and 20 as Faraizís. General ignorance was found to prevail among the population as to the distinction between the sects; and 9207 persons, or 3·47 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population, were returned simply as Muhammadans, without specification of sect. The only Districts in which the Shiás exceeded 1000 in number are—Nimár, 1455; and Nágpur, 1141.

Jains numbered 45,911 in 1881 throughout the Central Provinces. They are chiefly traders and commercial clerks from Rájputána. They are most numerous in Ságar District, where they number 16,432.

Christian Sects.—The 11,973 Christians in the Central Provinces comprise—British-born Europeans, 2774; other Europeans and Americans, 1145; Eurasians, 1230; Native Christians, 5558; Indian Portuguese, 206; unspecified, 1060. As regards religious sects, the Roman Catholics rank first, with 5833, of whom 4258 are natives; Church of England, 3802, of whom 393 are natives; Presbyterians, 715, including 317 natives; Methodists, 100; 'Protestants,' 'Christians,' and 'others' (not separately classified), 1523.

Distribution into Town and Country.—The population of the country is almost entirely rural, the inhabitants of the 52 towns containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants being only 697,644, or 6 per cent. of the total, or a fraction higher than the urban population in Bengal. The balance of 1,085,867, or 94 per cent., makes up the rural population. The following is a list of the 52 largest towns, with their population in 1881:—

Nágpur,	98,299	Umrer,	14,247	Dámoh,	8665
Jabalpur,	75,705	Sambalpur,	13,9[illegible]9	Murwárá,	8612
Kámpti,	50,987	Garhákota,	11,414	Khápá,	8465
Ságar,	44,416	Hardá,	11,203	Chhindwárá,	8220
Burhánpur,	30,017	Bhandárá,	11,150	Gádarwárá,	8100
Ráipur,	24,948	Narsinghpur,	10,222	Arvi,	8072
Chándá,	16,137	Seoní,	10,203	Warorá,	8022
Hoshangábád,	15,863	Pauní,	9,773	Sonpur,	7928
Khándwá,	15,142	Hinghanghát,	9,000	Rámtek,	7814

Biláspur, . . .	7775	Nándgáon, . . .	5849	Khurai, . . .	5370
Pándhurná, . .	7469	Wardhá, . . .	5816	Khalmeswar, . .	5318
Deorí, . . .	7414	Sehorá, . . .	5736	Ashti, . . .	5245
Tumsar, . . .	7388	Kawardhá, . .	5685	Rehlí, . . .	5230
Narkher, . . .	7061	Ratanpur, . .	5615	Mohgáon, . .	5180
Sohágpur, . . .	7027	Armorí, . . .	5584	Mohári, . . .	5142
Seoní, . . .	6998	Dongargarh, . .	5543	Deoli, . . .	5126
Dhamtárí, . . .	6647	Mohpá, . . .	5515	Sáoner, . . .	5023
Hatta, . . .	6325				

Of the total number of 45,854 villages and towns in the Central Provinces, including the Feudatory States, considerably more than one-half, or 27,616, contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 13,488 have between two hundred and five hundred; 3764 between five hundred and a thousand; 736 between one thousand and two thousand; 130 between two and three thousand; 68 between three and five thousand; 36 between five and ten thousand; 7 between ten and fifteen thousand; 3 between fifteen and twenty thousand; 3 between twenty and fifty thousand; and 3 upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants.

Occupations.—Excluding the 15 Feudatory States, the Census Report returned the male population of the British Districts according to occupation in the following six groups:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military officers, Government officials of every description, and the learned professions, 107,411. (2) Domestic class, including house servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 47,217. (3) Commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 71,926. (4) Agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 2,210,021. (5) Industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans, 610,068. (6) Indefinite and non-productive, including male children, persons of unspecified occupations, etc., 1,902,792.

Agriculture.—In the year 1882–83, the area under cultivation was estimated at 15,516,800 acres, of which rice, wheat, and other food-grains occupied 13,653,900 acres, or about 85 per cent. of the whole. Cotton was grown on 1,612,687 acres, chiefly in Nágpur, Wardhá, Nimár, Narsinghpur, Chhindwárá, and Ságar; and these six Districts, with Ráipur and Biláspur, have also the largest area under oil-seeds. The cultivation of tobacco is almost confined to Ráipur.

Nearly every form of land tenure found in India exists in the Central Provinces. Besides the estates of feudatory and of non-feudatory chiefs, known as *zamíndárís*, the succession to which follows the law of primogeniture, what is termed the *malguzárí* tenure prevails most widely. The estate, whether the property of one or many owners, is managed by a single proprietor, and the land is chiefly held by cultivators whose rents are thrown into a common stock. The profits are divided, or the losses made up, in proportion to the respective shares of the different proprietors.

The total agricultural population of the British Districts of the Central

Provinces, male and female, amounted in 1881 to 3,778,040, or 38·40 per cent. of the whole; average cultivated and cultivable area, 9 acres per head of the agricultural population. Landed proprietors numbered 93,993; tenants with occupancy rights, 345,562; assistants in home cultivation, 826,090; tenants at will, 1,133,699; agricultural labourers, herdsmen, graziers, etc., 1,356,379. Total area of British Districts, 84,445 square miles, of which 64,121 square miles are assessed for Government revenue or pay a light quit-rent, while 20,324 square miles are revenue-free and unassessed. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £647,345, or an average of 9⅞d. per cultivated acre. Total rental actually paid by the cultivators, £1,326,024, or an average of 1s. 9d. per cultivated acre. These averages are, however, below the general rates paid for Government (*khálsá*) land, as they include the payments made by the *zamíndárí* estates, which are only nominal and of the nature of quit-rents.

Commerce and Manufactures.—The only important manufactures consist of weaving, and smelting and working iron-ore. The tissue work of Burhánpur, and the richly embroidered wearing apparel produced in parts of Nágpur and Bhandárá, command an extensive sale beyond the Province; and the excellence of the ores smelted near Gádarwárá deserves notice. The internal trade is conducted by means of markets and fairs, the latter of which for the most part had a religious origin and still retain a religious character. The chief external trade is with Bombay westward. The principal imports consist of cotton piece-goods, hardware, salt, cocoa-nuts, European liquors, tobacco, etc.; and the principal exports are raw cotton, grain, *ghí*, oil-seeds, and Indian piece-goods. Next in importance is the trade with the North-Western Provinces and Calcutta, the main imports being sugar from Mirzápur, piece-goods, indigo, jute bags, European liquors, etc.; and the exports, cotton for the mills at Cawnpur, lac, iron, grain, etc. With the Central India States a considerable traffic exists; but with the Nizám's Dominions and Berár, and other parts of India, the trade is comparatively small. The Málwá opium, which passes through the Province for export to China, now goes through Nimár to Bombay by rail without being registered as in former years. Excluding this opium and other through trade, the totals may be thus presented:—Imports, in 1882-83, 129,453 tons—value, £3,134,785; exports, in 1882-83, 474,211 tons—value, £4,195,874; total imports and exports, 603,664 tons—value, £7,330,659.

Means of Communication.—The want of good means of communication, especially important in a land-locked region, has greatly retarded the progress of the Central Provinces. After the rains, the larger rivers become navigable, but the rocky barriers which occur in their channels restrict the use of this mode of transit. In 1882, the total length of

water communication was returned at 1373 miles. The making of roads, which may be said to date from the establishment of the British power, is rendered difficult by the nature of the country; and, taught by experience, the local engineering department has now laid down the principle that black-soil roads should be constructed on the principles applicable to a morass. In 1882, the total length of made roads throughout the Province was returned at 2833 miles. Nágpur forms the centre of the road system. From that city branch off—the northern road, to Seoní and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore); the eastern line, by Bhandárá and Ráipur, to Sambalpur; the north-western, to Chhindwárá; and the southern and south-western, to Chándá or Wardhá. But besides these roads, of which the first only can be called complete, numerous ancient tracks wind over hills and across the rocky beds of streams, along which the Banjárás drive their long trains of pack-bullocks. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway enters the Central Provinces near Burhánpur, and runs along the valley of the Narbadá, passing Hoshangábád, Narsinghpur, and Jabalpur, till it emerges from the north-east corner of the Province, near Balihrí. Starting from Bhusáwal, a tributary line connects Wardhá and Nágpur with the main railway, supplying communication with the coal-fields of Warorá. A further branch is being constructed from Nágpur to Chhatísgarh, the completion of which will open up the great granary of the Central Provinces; 146 miles of this line up to Rájhangáon were opened in February 1883.

The following is a list of the different Chief Commissioners who have administered the Central Provinces since their constitution into a separate administration:—Colonel E. K. Elliott, 11th December 1861; Lieutenant-Colonel J. K. Spence (officiating), 27th February 1862; Mr. R. Temple (officiating), 25th April 1862; Colonel E. K. Elliott, 18th December 1863; Mr. J. S. Campbell (officiating), 12th March 1864; Mr. R. Temple, 17th March 1864; Mr. J. S. Campbell (officiating), 24th April 1865; Mr. R. Temple, 6th November 1867; Mr. G. Campbell, 27th November 1867; Mr. J. H. Morris (officiating), 16th April 1868, confirmed 27th May 1870; Colonel R. H. Keatinge, V.C., C.S.I. (officiating), 8th July 1870; Mr. J. H. Morris, C.S.I., 6th July 1872; Mr. C. Grant (officiating), 11th April 1879; Mr. J. H. Morris, 15th November 1879; Mr. W. B. Jones, C.S.I., 30th April 1883; and Mr. C. H. T. Crossthwaite (officiating), 1st April 1884.

Administration.—The administration is carried on by a Chief Commissioner, aided by a Secretary and a Junior Secretary, in direct subordination to the Government of India. The courts, civil and criminal, are separately controlled by a chief judge, under the name of Judicial Commissioner. The administrative staff consists of 4 Commissioners, 18 Deputy Commissioners, 13 Assistant Commissioners, 33 extra-Assistant

Commissioners, and 49 *tahsíldárs* or sub-Collectors, who are distributed over 18 Districts, grouped into 4 Divisions. The police force, consisting of 18 District Superintendents, 2 assistant District Superintendents, 38 inspectors, and 8037 petty officers and constables, is controlled by an inspector-general; but in its executive functions is subordinate to the District authorities. Education, forest conservancy, and vaccination have separate establishments, though they receive aid from the regular civil staff. The medical staff is directly subordinate to the executive authorities, though the heads of the Medical Department throughout India exercise a general supervision. The Public Works Department owns no subordination to any local authority but the Chief Commissioner, to whom the provincial chief engineer is secretary in that branch of the administration. In 1882–83, the imperial and provincial revenue amounted to £1,227,000, of which £669,421 was derived from land. The income from local funds was £70,680. There are 61 municipalities, the total income of which during 1882–83 amounted to £88,796, and their total expenditure to £136,334. This, however, includes a sum of £67,672 spent on waterworks, to meet the cost of which, municipalities borrowed £55,000. Together, they contained a population of 697,271, and the incidence of municipal taxation averaged 2s. 6d. per head.

Education.—In 1883, there were altogether 1565 schools in the Central Provinces, of which 1457 were devoted to primary education. The scholars numbered 89,506, the average daily attendance being 67,397. Though 89 primary schools were devoted to girls, female education progresses but slowly. The conception is in advance of the people, and the difficulty of providing a suitable teaching staff forms a practical obstacle.

Climate and Meteorology.—A hilly country, such as the Central Provinces, with a large surface of rock exposed, and having rapid drainage, lying partly within the tropics at a considerable distance from the sea, and separated from it on all sides by ranges of hills of great elevation, would naturally have a hot and dry climate. The temperature is to some extent modified by the general elevation of the country. The south-west monsoon, which prevails from the end of June to the beginning of September, usually brings with it an abundant rainfall, and the wide tracts of forest, covering so large a portion of the area of the Province, retards evaporation. But notwithstanding these modifying influences, a climate still remains, of which a high temperature and a low degree of humidity are marked characteristics for nine months in the year.

As regards temperature, in the hot months of April and May, Nágpur, which lies below the Sátpuras in the Nágpur plain, exceeds both Bengal and the Upper Provinces. In the rains, from June to September,

the temperature of Nágpur is nearly the same as that of Calcutta, but is much lower than that of the Upper Provinces. In the cold weather the temperatures of Nágpur and Calcutta again approach each other, while that of the Northern Provinces remains much colder. The Districts above the Sátpuras have a temperature more nearly approaching that of the North-Western Provinces, while the Sátpura plateau Districts have from their superior elevation a somewhat cooler climate. As regards moisture of the atmosphere, in the spring and hot weather, from February to May, Nágpur is far below both Bengal and the Northern Provinces. In the rainy season, the moisture of Nágpur exceeds that of Northern India, but is considerably below that of Calcutta. After the rains have ceased, it again falls very rapidly to a lower point than is obtained either in Calcutta or Northern India. The mean annual rainfall of the Province is 45 inches, of which 41 inches fall in the monsoon season from June to October. This is a much higher fall than occurs in the Upper Provinces; but owing to the rapid drainage of the country, this heavy rainfall is fully required. Any considerable diminution in the quantity occasions loss of the crops and a scarcity of water in the hot weather. This does not often happen, but in 1868 a mean deficiency of 15 inches was followed by drought and famine in 1869. The arrival of the monsoon occurs with great uniformity over the whole Province, usually before the 20th June.

The Central Provinces being within the tropics, the changes in the direction of the wind, as the different seasons come round, are very regular. The north-easterly wind sets in in October, and continues steadily in this direction, or easterly, through November and the early part of December; in the latter part of that month it slackens, and southerly winds are frequent; the north-east wind, however, continues the prevailing wind till the end of January or beginning of February. In February and March the wind is variable, but southerly and south-westerly winds are more frequent. In April, the prevailing wind is north-west, and it continues from this direction until about the middle of June, when the monsoon sets in, the general direction of which is west and south-west. Westerly and north-westerly winds are the strongest; the north-east and easterly winds are generally light. A clear sky commonly accompanies the north-east and easterly winds, and their comparative dryness is shown by the rapid decrease of the relative humidity of the atmosphere in the month of November, when these winds prevail with the greatest steadiness; the wind from the north-west is, however, the driest wind. South and south-westerly winds bring clouds, and are commonly followed by electric disturbances and showers. The currents of air that traverse Central India differ considerably from those that prevail in the Ganges valley and Northern

India, particularly as regards the relative frequency of winds from the south-east and east. In the Ganges valley and the North-Western Provinces, south-east and easterly winds are frequent from March till October. In this part of India, a south-easterly wind is rare at all seasons; north-easterly and easterly winds prevail in the cold weather, but after February an easterly wind never blows except for a few hours from some local atmospheric disturbance.

Chabrámau.—*Tahsíl* and town in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* CHHIBRAMAU.

Cháitanpur.—Village with hot spring in Pátkúm *parganá*, Manbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 52′ 0″ N., long. 85° 54′ 0″ E.

Chaitpet (*Setterupettu*).—Village with fort in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 28′ N., long. 79° 23′ E. The fort was held by the Maráthás till 1690, when it was occupied by the Delhi troops. In 1750, Sháhnaváz Khán took refuge in it, but in the following year the French were in possession. Again seized by the Maráthás, the French recaptured it in 1757. Three years later, it fell to the British, after the battle of Wándiwash. In 1782, Haidar Alí fought ... drawn battle with the British troops: and in the

Chachána.—Petty State of Jháláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £229; tribute of £31, 16s. is paid to the British Government.

Cháchra.—*Sub-táluk* of Umarkot *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* UMARKOT *táluk*.

Cháchra.—Chief town in Umarkot *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 1649, namely, 183 Muhammadans (Rájput and Kumbar); and 1466 Hindus (chiefly Bráhmans, Lohános, Mengwárs, and Bhíls), shopkeepers and traders. No later population statistics are available to me. Distant 48 miles from Umarkot. The municipal revenue in 1873-74 was £153, but the municipality was abolished in 1878 on the introduction into Sind of Bombay Act vi. of 1873. Head-quarters of *múkhtiárkár*, with civil and criminal courts. Also Government school and *dharmsála*.

Chádchat.—Petty State in the Pálanpur Agency, Gujarát (Guzerát) Province, Bombay Presidency, known as Sántalpur and Chádchat; the latter has 11 villages. Estimated area of the whole, 440 square miles; population, exclusive of Sántalpur, (1881) 5330, consisting of 2803 males and 2527 females; of these, Hindus number 5097; Muhammadans, 168; 'others,' 65. The ruling family are Jhareja Rájputs, related to the Ráo of Cutch (Kachchh), and follow the rule of primogeniture. They hold the rank of *thákurs*. Estimated revenue (with Sántalpur) in 1881, £3360. The country is flat and open. There

under miscellaneous crops, such as sugar-cane, chillies, tobacco, etc. The Sub-division contains 2 criminal courts and 1 police station (*thánά*); strength of regular police, 74 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 115.

Chálísgáon.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Chálísgáon Sub-division. Station on the Great India Peninsula Railway, 30 miles south of Dhuliá town, with which it is connected by a fine, partly-bridged road. The town is of little importance, except as being the head-quarters of a Sub-division, although its trade has much increased since the opening of the railway. Population (1872) 3941. No later population statistics are available to me.

Chamárdi.—Petty State of Gohelwár, District of Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát) Province, Bombay Presidency. It consists of one village, with three independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1881, £900, from which £76, 10s. is paid as tribute to the Gaekwár, and £9 to Junágarh.

Chámarlákota (*Sámulkota*).—Town in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 3′ 10″ N., and long. 82° 12′ 50″ E., 7 miles north of Coconáda. Population (1881) 4961, namely, 4401 Hindus, 546 Muhammadans, and 14 Christians. It was formerly a military station, but was abandoned in January 1869. The barracks, first built in 1786, still remain. Chámarlákota is connected by canals with Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and Coconáda. Station of a Lutheran Church Mission.

73° 17′ 0″ E. long.; area, 818 square miles; population (1881) 154,144, namely, males 80,206, and females 73,938. Muhammadans numbered 134,534; Hindus, 14,487; Sikhs, 5123. Total area under cultivation—*rabí*, 212,436 acres, of which 171,692 are under rice; *kharíf*, 89,724 acres, of which 61,136 acres are under *bájrá*. Total area of cultivation, 290,135 acres, of which 12,025 acres are twice cropped. Total number of estates, 247, of which 12 are *zamíndárí*, 22 *pattidárí*,

silk cocoons, cloth, and grain.

Cháinpur.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated 7 miles west of Bhabua. Lat. 25° 2′ 15″ N., long. 83° 32′ 30″ E. Formerly the residence of the Cháinpur Rájás, who were expelled by the Patháns about 250 years ago; and still held by Muhammadans. Population (1881) 2964. The old fort of Cháinpur yet stands, surrounded by a ditch, and defended by a stone rampart flanked with bastions; it has a large gate in the northern, and a smaller one in the southern, curtain. The space within is covered with buildings, partly of brick and partly of stone, with several large wells. Mosque, in good condition, built as ... Emperor

by several deep ravines. Population in 1881, 5717, namely, 3279 Muhammadans, 2045 Hindus, and 393 Sikhs. Number of occupied houses, 920. A third-class municipality, with a revenue in 1882–83

Champanagar.—Village forming the western part of Bhágalpur town, Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Contains the mausoleum of a Muhammadan saint, with an inscription bearing the date 1622-23. Residence of the *pujáris* belonging to the Jain sect of Oswáls, of whom

Chambal (*Chumbul*). — River of Central India, and one of the principal tributaries of the Jumna (Jamná); rises in Málwá, about 8 or 9 miles south-west of the military station of Mhow (Mau), at an elevation of 2019 feet above sea-level, amidst a cluster of summits of the Vindhya range, having the local name of *Janapárá*, on the crest of the watershed which divides the great basins of the Ganges and the Narbadá (Nerbudda). Thence it flows down the slopes of the Vindhyan range, with a general northward course, for 80 miles, receiving the waters of the Chambíla, a stream of almost equal length and volume, which takes its rise in the same range. About 40 miles from its source it is crossed by the line of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway at Chambal Station. At the town of Tál, 25 miles lower down, the river turns to the north-west, and, winding with a sinuous detour round the fortress of Nagatwárá, shortly receives a second great tributary, the SIPRI, which also has its origin in the Vindhyan mountains. Passing by a tortuous course through the gorges of the Mokandarra Hills, the Chambal next enters the depressed tract of Haráotí (Harowtee). Previously to reaching this rugged region, it is crossed at the Gujarát Ghát, on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to the Mokandarra Pass, by a ford which becomes practicable after the 1st of November, while during the rains a ferry-boat is maintained for the convenience of traffic. Through the Mokandarra uplands, the Chambal glides between almost perpendicular cliffs, expanding at its 209th mile into a picturesque lake, from whose bed it escapes over a rocky barrier, by a series of magnificent cascades, the chief of which has an estimated fall of 60 feet. At the city of Kotáh, 50 miles below this picturesque scene, the Chambal is at all seasons a deep and large stream, which must be crossed by ferry, even elephants being unable to ford its shallowest part. At Paranúr, 31 miles from Kotáh, the road from Agra to Mhow (Mau) passes the river by a ford, its breadth varying from 300 yards in the rains to 30 yards in the dry season.

After receiving the waters of the KALI-SIND, PARBATI, and BANAS, its principal confluents, the Chambal assumes the dimensions of a great river; and continuing a north-easterly course, is crossed, 45 miles farther down, by a ferry on the Gwalior and Nasírábád (Nusseerábád) road. Maintaining the same direction for 55 miles, it flows under the city of Dholpur, on its left bank, and runs through a picturesque valley, bounded by fantastic hills in every variety of outline and contour. The river here is crossed by the Sindhia State Railway from Agra to Gwalior. At length, after passing into the British District

under miscellaneous crops, such as sugar-cane, chillies, tobacco, etc. The Sub-division contains 2 criminal courts and 1 police station (*thánā*); strength of regular police, 74 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 115.

Chálisgáon.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency,

a straight line, from the source near Mhow to the junction with the Jumna, may be taken at about 330 miles. The Chambal is liable to sudden floods, and during heavy rain it discharges a greater volume of water than the Jumna itself. After the two rivers have united, the crystal current of the mountain stream may be distinguished for some distance from the muddy waters of the main river. In times of flood, communication between the two banks is often interrupted for days together, no boat being able to live in the turbulent rapids. The Chambal is identified with the Charmanwati of Sanskrit writers. The chief ferries are at Udi, Bahráich, Sahaswán, and Páli. The average fall of the river may be estimated at 2¾ feet per mile.

Chámbal.—Town in the head-quarters Sub-division of Chittagong District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5000, namely, 2341 males and 2659 females.

Chambra Mala.—Mountain peak in Wainád *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency; situated 19 miles south of Manantoddy (Manántádi), in the richest coffee tract of the Wainád. Lat. 11° 32′ N., long. 76° 7′ E. Height, 6500 feet above the sea.

Chamiáni.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; situated about 1½ mile from the Lon river, 20 miles south-west of Unáo town. Population (1881) 4010, namely, Hindus, 2623; and Muhammadans, 1387. Village school.

Chamomeril (or *Iso Morírí*).—Lake in Ladákh, Kashmír State, in the elevated table-land of Rupshu, lying between the valleys of the Sutlej (Satlaj) and the Indus. Lat. 32° 55′ N., long. 78° 15′ E. Elevation above sea-level, 14,900 feet. Surrounded by mountains, some of which rise to a height of 5000 feet from the water's edge. The water is brackish, and not good for drinking purposes, although horses and goats drink it. Though it receives several considerable streams, it has no efflux, the level being maintained by evaporation. Length from north to south, 15 miles; breadth, from 3 to 5 miles.

Chámpa (*Chápa*).—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 120 square miles, with 65 villages and 6377 occupied houses. Population (1881) 23,819, namely, males 11,716, and females 12,103; average density of population, 198·5 per square mile. The chief is a Kunwár. At Chámpa, his head-quarters (lat. 22° 2′ 0″ N., long. 82° 43′ 0″ E.), dwell a considerable number of weavers, whose manufactures find a ready sale in the adjoining market of Bamnídehí.

Champaháti.—Small village and station on the Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway, 15 miles south-west of Calcutta, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal.

Champanagar.—Village forming the western part of Bhágalpur town, Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Contains the mausoleum of a Muhammadan saint, with an inscription bearing the date 1622–23. Residence of the *pujárís* belonging to the Jain sect of Oswáls, of whom there is a small community at Bhágalpur. The village is the head-quarters of the *tasar* silk manufacture in the District.

Champáner.—Hill fort and village in the District of the Pánch Mahals, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency; situated on an isolated rock of great height, 250 miles north by east of Bombay, and 27 miles north-east of Baroda. Lat. 22° 31′ N., long. 73° 36′ E. The fortifications enclose a space about three-quarters of a mile in length by three furlongs in breadth. Within this enclosure are two forts, an upper and a lower. The upper fort, which, from its natural situation, is almost impregnable, contains a temple to the goddess Kálí, of much local reputation. The lower fort, also very difficult of access, possesses some curious Hindu monuments of remote antiquity. Till late in the 15th century, the strength of this citadel preserved their territory and capital to a line of Rájput chiefs; but in 1482, Mahmúd (Begára), King of Ahmadábád, enraged at certain acts of aggression on the part of the ruler of Champáner, overran his territory, and laid siege to his stronghold. According to Hindu accounts, the upper fortress resisted all the efforts of the besiegers, and yielded only after a blockade of twelve years. Pleased with its situation, Mahmúd determined to make Champáner his capital, and accordingly he founded a new city at some distance from the former town, adorning it with large and beautiful mosques. Muhammadábád Champáner, as it was now called, became a place of great wealth; trade soon developed; and until about 1560, the place remained the capital of the Gujarát kings.

During the Emperor Humáyun's rapid conquest of Gujarát, the fort of Champáner was taken in August 1535. According to local legend, the Emperor himself, with a small band of followers, climbed up by means of iron spikes driven into the face of the rock, won an entrance, and admitted the main body of his troops. On the dismemberment of the Delhi Empire in the latter part of the 18th century, Champáner was seized by the Maráthás, and ultimately fell into the hands of Madhují Sindhia. It was entirely neglected by his successor, Dáulat Ráo Sindhia, and on the 17th September 1802, surrendered without resistance to a small British detachment under the command of Colonel Woodington. It was restored in 1803 to Dáulat Ráo Sindhia by the treaty of Serji Anjangáon. Subsequently, in 1861, the town was, with the whole District of the Pánch Mahals, transferred to the British Government. During the 18th century, Champáner was deserted, and its neighbourhood has relapsed into jungle. So unhealthy, indeed, has the place become, that several attempts to colonize it have failed. Though now

almost without inhabitants, its magnificent hill, the fortifications, the site of the old Hindu town, and the ruins of the Musalmán capital, still make Champáner a place of much interest.

Champáran.—District of the Patná Division, occupying the north-west corner of Behar, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal; lying between 26° 16′ and 27° 30′ N., and between 83° 55′ and 85° 21′ E. long. Total area, 3531 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,721,608 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of Motíhári, situated in lat. 26° 39′ N., and long. 84° 58′ E.

Champáran District is bounded north by the Independent State of Nepál; east by Muzaffarpur District; south by Muzaffarpur and Sáran; and west by Gorakhpur District, in the North-Western Provinces, and by a portion of Nepál territory called Ráj Botwál. The northern frontier, where not naturally formed by rivers, is marked by ditches and masonry pillars; for some distance it runs along the summit of the Sumeswar range. On the east, the Bághmatí river constitutes a natural boundary with Muzaffarpur for a distance of 35 miles; and similarly the Gandak is the continuous south-western boundary from Tribení Ghát to Sattar Ghát. Owing to changes in the course of the Gandak, a tract of land, consisting of 35 villages, on the farther bank of the river is now arbitrarily included within the jurisdiction of Champáran.

History.—This tract of country has no history of its own. It was separated from Sáran, and erected into an independent District, as recently as 1866; and at the present time the judge of Sáran periodically visits Motihárí to hold the Sessions. But though Champáran contains no large towns or sites that can be connected with historical events, there are local traditions and ruins of archæological interest that point back to a prehistoric past. The earliest remains show that Champáran formed an integral part of the great kingdom of Magadha, which flourished before the Christian era. At the village of Lauriyá Navanagarh there are three rows of huge tumuli, which have been visited by General Cunningham. A small silver coin of a date anterior to the invasion of Alexander the Great, and a seal of black earthenware with an inscription in the Gupta character, have been found. From these and other indications, General Cunningham is induced to believe that the tumuli contain the graves of early kings, who lived between 1500 and 600 B.C. In the same neighbourhood stands a pillar, inscribed with the Buddhist edicts of Asoka. It is a single block of polished sandstone, 33 feet high, the diameter tapering from 35 inches at the base to 26 inches at the top. The capital supports a statue of a lion facing the north, and the abacus is ornamented with a row of Bráhmaní geese. A similar column, of less graceful dimensions, is to be seen at the village of Araráj. At Kesariyá is a large brick mound, supporting a solid tower or *stupa* of the same material 62 feet high and

68 feet in diameter, which is supposed by General Cunningham to have been erected to commemorate one of the acts of Buddha. Close by are the ruins of a small temple, and the head and shoulders of a colossal image of Buddha. Another class of remains bear witness to a later generation of kings, who are described in local legend as Rájput immigrants. Their capital was at Simráun, on the Nepál frontier, where there are extensive ruins of fortifications and tanks now overgrown with jungle. Tradition says that Simráun was founded by Nánuapá Deva in 1097 A.D.; and that the seventh and last of the royal line was driven northwards into Nepál by the Muhammadans in 1322.

The Musalmán *sarkár* of Champáran was considerably smaller than the present British District. In 1582, according to the rent-roll of Todar Mall, Akbar's finance minister, it was composed of three *parganás*, covering a total area of 85,711 *bíghás*, and paying a gross revenue that may be computed at £14,000. When the East India Company obtained possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765, the area was estimated at 2546 square miles, and the revenue was £34,000. The whole was settled with the sons of Jagal Kishori Singh, the owner of the Bettiá Ráj, which family still owns the larger half of the soil of the District. The remainder is held principally by two other great landowners, the Rájá of Rámnagar on the Nepál frontier, and the family known as the Madhubani Bábus, founded by Abdul Singh, a member of the Bettiá family. In recent times, the only historical event that has taken place in Champáran is connected with the Mutiny of 1857. The 12th regiment of Irregular Horse was then stationed at Segaulí. The commandant, Major Holmes, expressed himself confident of the loyalty of his men. But one day in July, the *sowárs* or troopers suddenly rose in mutiny, massacred their commandant, his wife and children, and all the Europeans in the cantonments. Still more recently, Champáran has been severely visited by the two famines of 1866 and 1874, both of which were caused by seasons of deficient rainfall. The District is peculiarly exposed to such calamities. It is backward in civilisation, has comparatively little trade or accumulated wealth; and, till the opening of the branch of the Tirhút State Railway, it lay remote from the ordinary channels of communication. It has now, however, been placed in direct communication with the principal marts and seats of commerce.

Physical Aspects.—Champáran consists of an irregular triangle, with its apex toward the south-east. Its sides are formed by the two bordering rivers, the Gandak and the Bághmatí; its base on the north is closed by the low hills on the Nepál frontier; while it is bisected throughout its entire length by the Burí or Old Gandak. The southern portion resembles in all respects the adjoining Districts of Sáran and Muzaffarpur, and perhaps exceeds them in fertility. The land is almost

uniformly level, and under continuous cultivation. Towards the north the country becomes undulating and broken, until it reaches its highest elevation in the Sumeswar range, which averages 1500 feet above sea-level, the highest point being 2270 feet. In some places these hills are inaccessible to man. The character of the surface varies, being rocky and barren in some places, while in others it is studded with trees or covered with grass. At the eastern extremity of the Sumeswar range is situated the pass leading to Deoghát in Nepál, through which the British army successfully marched during the Gurkhá War in 1814-15. The other principal passes are the Sumeswar, Kápan and Harlau Harhá.

The ascent to the Sumeswar pass lies up the bed of the Júrí Pání river, amid romantic scenery. About 200 feet below the summit there is sufficient ground for a small sanitarium, where the temperature does not exceed 80° F. in the hot weather, and pure water is to be found; and to which a good road might be constructed. It overlooks the Mauri valley in Nepál; and from the summit, the enormous mountains of Diwálagiri, Gosáinthán, Urnapúrná, and Everest are clearly visible. This northern tract is covered with forest, from which the finest timber-trees have long ago been carried away. It also contains large grass prairies, low-lying and watered by many streams, which afford pasturage to numerous herds of cattle. The large rivers, navigable throughout the year by boats of 100 *maunds*, are:—The GANDAK, locally known as the Sálignámi, flows southwards from Nepál, touches on Champáran at Tribení *ghát* in the extreme north-west, whence it flows south-westwards partly through the District, but for the most part marking its western boundary, till it leaves Champáran at its south-west corner. The river is reported to be navigable throughout the year by boats of about forty tons burthen, but navigation is rendered difficult, owing to the narrow and tortuous course during the hot and cold season, and to its impetuous current in the rains. The breadth of the stream is two or three miles at places during the rains, but in the cold weather the stream is rarely more than a quarter of a mile across. The river is nowhere fordable; it changes its course nearly every year, exhibiting the operations of alluvion and diluvion on a large scale. The LITTLE GANDAK, which is known by a variety of names in different parts of its course, takes its rise in the Sumeswar hills, and flows through the centre of the District from north-west to south-east till it enters Muzaffarpur. Navigable throughout the year for the greater part of its course by boats of from 7 to 15 tons. In the dry weather it is fordable in many places, but in the rains the many hill streams which join it make it an impetuous torrent. The BAGHMATI forms part of the eastern boundary of the District for a distance of about 35 miles. Navigable by boats of 15 or 18 tons burthen for a portion of its course.

Its current is very rapid, sometimes reaching seven miles an hour in its upper reaches, during freshes. A few days' rain causes the river to rise rapidly, and its floods inundate the country far inland. It has changed its course several times, the soil being very light and loose along its banks, which are being constantly washed away. Through the centre of the District runs a long chain of shallow lakes or *jhíls*, 43 in number, which cover a total area of 139 square miles, and which evidently mark the former bed of a large river which has now taken another course.

Champáran suffers from the effects of an irregular water-supply. Droughts are of common occurrence; in 1866, and again in 1874, they caused widespread scarcity. The District, which was formerly subject to destructive inundations from the Gandak and the Bághmati, has been protected, so far as the floods of the former river are concerned, by an extensive embankment constructed by Government engineers. In the north, the small drainage channels or *nálás* are inadequate to carry off the rainfall of the hills, which often lays the country under water. The natural products of the District are chiefly found in the hilly tract to the north. Gold is washed in the beds of the hill streams, and it is said that a considerable revenue was formerly derived from this source. Copper is also found in small quantities, and the discovery has been reported of a bed of coal. Building-stone exists, though it has not been utilized. A stratum of *kankar* or nodular limestone runs throughout the whole District; the stone is used both for metalling the roads and for burning into lime. Apart from timber and firewood, the chief jungle products are a grass called *sobítá* (used for making ropes), the *narkat* reed (used for mats), honey and beeswax, lac, long pepper, and various medicinal plants. The forests of Rámnagar, which have been leased by the Rájá to a European capitalist, at an annual rental of £1000, are estimated to yield to the lessee a profit of ten times that amount. The total value of all the fisheries in the District is insignificant.

People.—Several early enumerations of the inhabitants exist, but not one of them can be accepted as accurate. The highest estimate, in 1869, gave a total of 932,322 souls. The first regular Census, in 1872, returned the population at 1,440,815 souls, spread over an area of 3531 square miles, or an average of 408 per square mile. In 1881, with the area of the District the same as in 1872, the Census showed that the population numbered 1,721,608, being a nominal increase of 280,793, or 19½ per cent. in the nine years. A considerable proportion of the reported increase of the population, however, the Collector states is due to better enumeration in 1881 than in 1872. The male population in 1881 numbered 870,627, and the females 850,981; proportion of males in total population, 50·57 per cent. Area of District, 3531 square miles;

number of villages, 7766; number of houses, 293,709, of which 282,821 are occupied and 10,888 unoccupied. Average density of population, 487·57 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·20; persons per village, 221; persons per occupied house, 6·09. Classified according to religion the population consists of:—Hindus, 1,476,985; Muhammadans, 242,687; and Christians, 1936.

Among the aboriginal population are included the Thárus, who with the Nepális (although not returned separately in the Census Report) are almost entirely confined to the two frontier *thánás* of Lauriyá and Bagahá. The Thárus are a race of Indo-Chinese origin, inhabiting the malarious *tarái* along the foot of the Himálayas. They are honest and industrious people, who utilize the water of the hill streams for their scanty patches of rice cultivation. Another tribe almost peculiar to Champáran is the Maghya Dom, whose numbers are not given separately in the Census Report, but probably do not exceed 800 souls. They are a nomad tribe, with inveterate habits of thieving; and it has been proposed to break up their organization by special police measures. An attempt was made in 1882 to induce these Doms to settle down in a small colony, and was so far successful that in 1883 about 250 Doms were settled in the northern half of the District, under the supervision of the magistrate and police authorities. They are reported to be living an orderly life like their neighbours, subsisting by the cultivation of their fields, in basket-weaving, or as day-labourers, etc. The Gonds, an aboriginal tribe, are returned at 11,055, out of a total aboriginal population of various tribes and castes of 40,949.

The superior castes of Hindus are well represented. The Bráhmans, who are specially encouraged to settle on the Bettiá estate, number 76,284; the Rájputs, 80,764; the Bábhans or military Bráhmans, to which caste the Rájá of Bettiá himself belongs, 42,280. Of the Súdra castes, the most respectable are the Káyasth, or writer caste, who form the majority of subordinate Government officers, 28,411 in number; Baniyá, or traders, 25,821; Napit, barbers, 21,109; Lohár, blacksmiths, 26,911; Kumbhár, potters, 18,807; Kurmí, 88,721, and Koerí, 103,893, the two chief cultivating castes; Kandu, confectioners, 66,563; Barui, growers of the betel plant, 10,455; Goálá, herdsmen, the most numerous caste in the District, who bear a bad reputation for honesty, 169,274; Kahár, domestic servants and palanquin-bearers, 19,430; Dhobí, washermen, 17,892; Sonár, goldsmiths, 14,990; Tátwa, weavers, 24,319; Telí, trades and oil-sellers, 52,842; and Mallas, boatmen, 55,411. The lowest castes, or semi-Hinduized aborigines, comprise:—Nuniyá, saltpetre makers by hereditary occupation, who also supply the best labourers and spades-men to be found in the District, 45,324; Kalwar, spirit-sellers, 30,357;

and the cognate degraded castes of Chamárs, 112,789; Dosádh, 81,961; Musahar, 37,913; Bind, 23,569; and Dhánuk, 15,235. The number of Hindus not recognising caste was returned at 3051, of whom 2345 were Vaishnavs. Many of the Musalmáns are immigrants from Patná and the North-Western Provinces. By sect, they are divided into 209,398 Shiás and 1326 Sunnís.

The Christians include 1814 native converts, under the charge of two Roman Catholic missions at Bettiá and Chuhárí. The former was founded in 1746 by an Italian priest, who had been invited into the District by the Rájá of Bettiá. The Chuhárí mission was established in 1770 by three priests who had been expelled from Nepál. The mission represents all that is now left of the famous Tibetan Mission which so greatly excited the interest of Europe in the last century, with its wonderful accounts of Lhássa and its Grand Lámas.

The population of Champáran is entirely rural. The villages are somewhat larger than in the rest of Behar, but this is no indication of a tendency towards urban life. The largest town is BETTIA, with a population of 21,263. MOTIHARI, the civil station, has 10,307 inhabitants. The other towns containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants, are MADHUBANI, with 7025; and KESARIYA, with 5256. SEGAULI, about 15 miles from Motíhárí, the scene of the Mutiny of 1857, is still occupied by a regiment of native cavalry. Large fairs for religious objects and for trade are held annually at BETTIA, SITAKUND, ARARAJ, and TRIBENI GHAT. The chief centres of trade are Bettiá, Champattia, and Bagahá, on the Gandak. Of the 7766 towns and villages comprising the District, 5004 are returned as containing less than 200 inhabitants; 2048 from 200 to 500; 593 from 500 to 1000; 107 from 1000 to 2000; 7 from 2000 to 3000; 3 from 3000 to 5000; 2 from 5000 to 10,000; 1 from 10,000 to 15,000; and 1 upwards of 50,000 inhabitants. The primitive organization of village officials is represented at the present day by the *jéth rayat* or head-man and the *patwárí* or accountant. Both these, however, have now become servants of the *zamíndár* rather than officials of the community.

The people of the District are, as a rule, badly off. The whole agricultural population is in debt to the *mahájan*, or village money-lender, who has advanced money or grain on the security of the next crop. Though rents are low, and the produce of the land good, the cultivators are in constant difficulties, partly through this system of mortgaging their future crops, and partly from improvidence. The droughts and floods to which the District is liable, render matters worse; and Champáran, with one of the most fertile soils in Behar, is probably the poorest District in that Province. The influence of the few great proprietors, who practically own the entire District, the general ignorance of the peasantry, the system of rack-renting and short

leases, have all combined to hinder the cultivator from acquiring any permanent interest in the soil. To the general rule of poverty, however, the Thárus form a marked exception. They cultivate with great care the fertile *tarai* or sub-montane lands in the north of Rámnagar *parganá;* and their general prudence and foresight have raised them far above all other castes in Champáran. During the famine of 1874, not one of them came to the relief works; and they then asserted that they had sufficient rice in store for six months' consumption.

Classified according to occupation, the Census Report returns the male inhabitants under the six following main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and the learned professions, 10,671; (2) domestic servants, etc., 20,888; (3) commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 21,474; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 346,453; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 46,641; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 86,400 general labourers and 338,100 'unspecified,' including children), 424,500.

Antiquities.—Champáran abounds in places of historical interest, many dating back to a period anterior to the Christian era. SIMRAUN, now in ruins, is situated partly in British and partly in Nepál territory, the frontier line passing through the walls. The ruins are in the form of a square, surrounded by an outer and an inner wall, the former being 14, and the latter 10 miles in circumference. On the east side, six or seven ditches can still be traced between the walls, and three or four on the west side. Inside are the remains of massive buildings, and of a large tank, measuring 333 yards by 210. Its sides are composed of the finest burnt bricks, each a cubit square and a *maund* (80 lbs.) in weight. The remains of palaces and temples disclose some finely-carved basements, with a superstructure of beautiful bricks. The citadel is situated to the north, and the palace in the centre; but both only exist as tumuli from 20 to 25 feet high, covered with trees and jungle. Tradition says that Simráun was founded by Nánuapá Deva A.D. 1097. Six of his dynasty reigned with much splendour, but the last of the line, Hari Singh Deo, was driven out in 1322 or 1323 by the Muhammadans.

Two miles to the south of Kesariyá police station, stands a lofty brick mound, 1400 feet in circumference, capped by a solid brick tower, 62 feet in height. General Cunningham assigns the date of this tower to between 200 and 700 A.D., and concludes that it was built on the top of a much older and larger *stupa*. About a mile north-north-east of this tower, is a low mound with the walls of a small temple 10 feet square, containing the head and shoulders of a colossal figure of Buddha. This is supposed to have been the site of a monastery, as the remains of cells are still visible. At Araráj, about

20 miles north-west of Kesariyá, is a lofty stone pillar, bearing in well-cut and well-preserved letters several of Asoka's edicts. The pillar consists of a single block of polished sandstone 36½ feet high, with a diameter at the base of 41·8 inches, and 37·6 inches at the top. At Lauriyá Navandgarh or Mathya, about 15 miles north-west of Bettiá, are some very extensive remains, consisting of three rows of earthen barrows or huge conical mounds. General Cunningham considers them to be sepulchral mounds of early kings before Buddhism arose, and assigns their date to a period between 1500 and 600 B.C. A short distance from these barrows stands the lion pillar of Lauriya Navandgarh, consisting of a single block of polished sandstone, 32 feet 9 inches high, with a top diameter of 26·2 inches, and a base diameter of 35½ inches. The capital is bell-shaped, with a circular abacus, supporting a statue of a lion. The column is much thinner and lighter than that at Araráj, and contains the edicts of Asoka beautifully inscribed, as well as some unimportant inscriptions in modern Nágari. The pillar is now worshipped as a *phallus*, and is commonly known as Bhím Singh's *lathi* or club.

Agriculture. — The crops in Champáran are divided into three harvests, named after the season of the year in which they are reaped—(1) the *bhadaí* or autumn crop; (2) the *aghání* or autumn crop; (3) the *rabí* or spring crop. The total cultivated area is pretty equally distributed between the three. Rice may be either a *bhadaí* or an *aghání* crop, but more usually the latter. In the former case, it is grown on comparatively high lands; in the latter case in low-lying fields. The cultivation of rice is chiefly confined to the tract lying north of the Little Gandak river, and it has been estimated that only about one-third of the population habitually use rice as their daily food. In the remainder of the District the food-supply is drawn from the *bhádaí* and *rabí* crops, which include barley, wheat, Indian corn, and various millets and pulses. The miscellaneous crops not grown for food, are indigo, oil-seeds, opium, tobacco, and sugar-cane. In Champáran, indigo is generally grown under the *asámíwár* system; in accordance with which the planter takes a lease of an entire village from the *zamíndár*, and the cultivators are required to plant indigo on receiving an advance. There are altogether 12 head factories in the District, with 24 outworks, cultivating about 60,000 acres, but holding leases of villages, the area of which cannot be less than half a million of acres. In 1872, which was an average season, the out-turn was about 8000 cwts., valued at £264,000. In 1882–83, the actual out-turn was 11,962 cwts., and the estimated out-turn for the following year, 11,000 cwts. As elsewhere throughout Behar, opium is cultivated on a system of advances made by the Government. In 1872–73, the total area under opium was about 59,000 acres, and the out-turn

about 6000 cwts. The cultivation of sugar-cane is said to have been introduced from Gorakhpur in the beginning of the present century. Manure, in the shape of cow-dung and *sít* or indigo refuse, is used for special crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, opium, and indigo.

Irrigation is commonly practised in the north of the District, especially by the Thárus, who lead the water to their fields from the hill streams by artificial channels sometimes several miles in length. In the south of the District wells are occasionally dug for purposes of irrigation. Tanks are extremely rare. An elaborate scheme for utilizing the destructive flood-waters of the Gandak has long been under the consideration of Government. Almost the entire soil of Champáran is in the hands of three large landowners, who usually farm out their estates on short leases to middlemen, and the rent is frequently paid in kind. Though rents are not high, as compared with the neighbouring Districts, this system is unfavourable to the independence of the cultivators, who are described as being in poor circumstances. Owing to a succession of excellent harvests of late years, the cultivators are now (1883) in better circumstances than at any period during the past twenty years. The Koerís and Kurmís are skilled agriculturists, and capable of managing large holdings; higher rents are taken from them than from the favoured castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Bábhans. The average rent of land on which food-crops are raised varies from 3s. to 6s. per acre. A large extent of waste land is still available for tillage in the central and north-western parts of the District.

Natural Calamities.—Champáran is exceptionally exposed to natural calamities. The famines of 1866 and 1874, caused by drought, produced great and general distress in this District. In each case, also, the end of the drought was attended by destructive floods. The calamity of drought can only be remedied by encouraging facilities for importation, which will be provided by the Bettiá branch of the Tirhút State Railway. The mischief caused by floods, though equally overwhelming as that caused by drought, is not so extensive in its area, and the embankment along the left bank of the Gandak will effectually protect the low-lying fields. Famine rates are reached when rice sells in the beginning of the year at 12s. per cwt. But it must be recollected that the majority of the people do not eat rice, but depend upon barley and inferior grains.

Industrial.—There are altogether 26 lines of road in Champáran, with an aggregate length of 438 miles. In the year 1874–75, a total sum of £8252 was expended by the District Road Committee. External commerce is chiefly conducted by the rivers, which lend themselves more easily to export than to import. The Tirhút State Railway from Muzaffarpur to Bettiá, through Motíhárí, now (1883) nearly ready to be opened, will place the District in direct connection with the main channels of

communication. The indigenous manufactures are confined to the weaving of coarse cotton cloth and blankets, and the making of pottery. The preparation of indigo is almost entirely conducted by European capital and under European supervision. The industry of sugar-refining has been introduced from the neighbouring District of Gorakhpur within the present century. Saliferous earth is found in all parts of the District; and from this a special caste, called Nuniyás, earn a scanty livelihood by extracting saltpetre and other saline substances, including a considerable quantity of untaxed salt. Apart from its local trade in agricultural products, Champáran possesses commercial importance as occupying the high road between Patná and Nepál. Both the local and through traffic of the District, so far as it did not escape registration, is included in the following totals, which refer to the year 1876-77:—Exports, £543,000, chiefly indigo £245,000, oil-seeds £120,000, timber £38,000, sugar £17,000, and cotton goods £30,000, which last are despatched northwards into Nepál; imports, £139,000, chiefly salt £39,000, piece-goods £13,000, and food-grains £20,000, received from Nepál. The principal river marts are Bettiá, Gobindganj, Bagahá, Barharwá, Pákrí, and Mánpur. The greater portion of the trade with Nepál crosses the frontier at Katkanwá.

Administration.—Champáran was separated from Sáran, and erected into an independent District, in 1866. In 1870-71, the revenue amounted to £82,212, of which £50,030 was derived from the land; the expenditure was £57,779, including £23,749 on account of military payments, thus leaving a net surplus of £24,433. In 1881-82, the total revenue amounted to £86,301, of which £51,269 was on account of land-tax. In 1881-82, the regular police consisted of a force of 341 men of all ranks, of whom 40 were employed in town or municipal duty, maintained at a total cost of £4843, and a village watch of 2363 men, who received emoluments in money or land from the landowners to the estimated value of £6227. The total force, therefore, for the protection of person and property numbered 2704 officers and men, being 1 man to every 1·30 square mile or to every 637 persons in the population. The estimated aggregate cost was £11,070, equal to an average of £4, 1s. 10½d. per square mile and 1⅔d. per head of population. There is a jail at the civil station of Motíhárí, with a subordinate lock-up at Bettiá. In the year 1881, the daily average number of prisoners was 420, being 1 prisoner to every 4099 of the population. The Motíhárí jail has a bad reputation for its excessive unhealthiness, and a new prison is now (1883) in course of construction.

Education in this remote District has hitherto been in a backward condition. It is only since the introduction of Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended

to the village schools or *páthsálás*, that primary instruction has had any existence in Champáran. In 1870–71, there were only 2 schools in the District, attended by 51 pupils. In 1872–73, after the reforms above mentioned had come into operation, the number of schools increased to 78, and the number of pupils to 1222. By the 31st March 1875, the schools had further increased to 182, and the pupils to 3805. The greatest increase has taken place since that date; and in 1881–82 there were 36 upper primary schools, attended by 1261 scholars, and 930 lower primary schools, with 7576 pupils; total, 966 schools, attended on the 31st March 1882 by 8837 pupils.

For administrative purposes, Champáran District is divided into 2 Sub-divisions and into 10 *thánás* or police circles. There are 4 *parganás* or fiscal divisions; but one of these, *parganá* Majhawá, which includes the Bettiá Ráj, the Rámnagar estate, and the greater part of the Madhubani estate, covers an area of 1½ million acres, and for fiscal purposes is divided into 25 *tappás* or minor revenue areas. In 1881–82 there were 7 magisterial and 3 civil courts open, and 2 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District. The two towns of Motíhárí and Bettiá, with an aggregate population of 31,570 souls, had in 1881–82 a total municipal income of £1249; average rate of taxation, 10d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Champáran is described as comparatively cool and dry. The rainy season lasts from June to September. The hottest month of the year is May, at which time hot winds from the west frequently prevail. The cold weather lasts from November to March. The nights are then cold and bracing, and light winds blow. The annual rainfall at Motíhárí town for the 23 years ending 1881 was 47·92 inches. In the latter year, 57·06 inches fell, or 9·14 inches above the average.

Endemic diseases of a malarious origin prevail, especially in the north of the District. In Rámnagar, intermittent fever assumes its most fatal type. Goitre, with its attendant cretinism, is common. Cholera is rarely absent from some part of the District, and outbreaks of small-pox are not infrequent. [For further information regarding Champáran District, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiii. pp. 220 to 318 (Trübner & Co., London, 1877). Also the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881, and the *Provincial Administration Reports* for the years 1880 to 1883.]

Champáran.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Champáran District, Bengal. Area, 1518 square miles, with 4594 villages and 159,475 houses, of which 153,842 are occupied and 5633 unoccupied. Population (1881) — Hindus, 879,812; Muhammadans, 137,633; and Christians, 111: total, 1,017,556, viz. 513,113 males and 504,443 females. Average density of population, 670 per square mile; houses

per square mile, 105; persons per village, 753; persons per occupied house, 6·61. The Sub-division consists of the police circles (*thánás*) of Motíhárí, Adápur, Dháká Rámchandra, Kesariyá, Madhuban, and Gobindganj. In 1882, it contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; with a regular police force of 215 officers and men, and 1173 *chaukidárs* or village watchmen.

Champdání.—Small village in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, near Baidybátí. In former times, notorious for piracies and murders.

Chámrájnagar.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 208 square miles; population (1881) 80,550, viz. males 38,911, and females 41,639. Hindus numbered 78,764; Muhammadans, 1778; and Christians, 8. Land revenue (1874–75), exclusive of water-rates, £12,222, or 2s. 1d. per cultivated acre. There is much black cotton-soil, growing wheat, etc.

Chámrájnagar.—Town in Mysore District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name; 36 miles south-east from Mysore town. Lat. 11° 56′ 15″ N., long. 77° E.; population (1881) 4123, of whom 2 are Christians. Original name (Arkotar) changed by the late Mahárájá of Mysore in 1818, in honour of his father Chámráj Wodeyár, who was born here. In 1825, the Mahárájá erected a large temple to Chámrájeswara, which he endowed with *sarvamányam* villages, yielding £1700 a year, and placed in charge of an *amíldár* with 157 subordinates. He also built a palace. Two miles east are the ruins of an ancient city, locally known as Manipur.

Chamráuli.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; situated 7 miles east of Unáo town. Founded by the Dikhit Kshattriyás, and the seat of their power for many generations. Still one of the chief Dikhit villages. Population (1881) 2704, namely, Hindus, 2482; Muhammadans, 222. Government school. Large village. Grain market. Two old Sivaite temples.

Chamúndibetta (the hill of Chamúndi, a name for Káli, the consort of Siva).—Precipitous hill in Mysore District, Mysore State; 2 miles south-east of the fort of Mysore, 3489 feet above sea-level. Lat. 12° 17′ N., long. 76° 44′ E. A road for wheel traffic, 5½ miles in length, opened in 1877–78, leads to the summit, on which is a temple of Chamúndi, repaired by the late Mahárájá. Human sacrifices were offered here until the time of Haidar Alí. Two-thirds of the way up is a colossal figure of Nandi, the sacred bull of Siva, hewn out of the solid rock. The figure is in a recumbent attitude, 16 feet high, and very correctly represented. It was carved by order of Dodda Deva Rájá, who ascended the throne of Mysore in 1659.

Chámursi.—Town in Múl *tahsíl*, Chánda District, Central Provinces, situated near the left bank of the Waingangá. Population (1881) 3480,

namely, Hindus, 3244; Muhammadans, 80; and tribes professing aboriginal religions, 156. Trade in castor seed with the Nizám's territory; and in *ghí*, silk cocoons, and thread with the east coast. Weekly market, post-office, and school.

Chanár (*Chunar*).—*Tahsíl* of Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the Ganges, and consisting in large part of the last outlying terraces which descend from the Vindhyan range. Area, 558 square miles, of which 244 are cultivated; population (1881) 182,654; land revenue, £28,665; total revenue, £30,320; rental paid by cultivators, £59,042. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 1 criminal court and 7 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 79 men; village watchmen, 381.

Chanár.—Fortress and ancient town in Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 25° 7′ 30″ N., and long. 82° 55′ 1″ E., on the south bank of the Ganges, at the point where the river takes its great bend northward towards Benares. Distant from Benares 26 miles south-west, from Mírzápur 20 miles east. Population (1881) 9148, namely, 6667 Hindus, 2386 Musalmáns, 51 Christians, and 44 'others;' area of town site, 211 acres. Municipal income (1881) £710.

The fort of Chanár is built upon an outlier of the Vindhyan range—a sandstone rock jutting into the Ganges, and deflecting the river to the north. It lies nearly north and south, 800 yards in length, 133 to 300 in breadth, and 80 to 175 feet above the level of the surrounding country. The circumference of the walls is about 2400 yards. The present fortifications were for the most part constructed by the Musalmáns, apparently from materials obtained by pulling down still older Hindu buildings. Sculptured stones, with figures of Hindu deities and heroes in high relief, are found built into the walls and pavements, with their carved faces scornfully turned downwards into the earth. Ornaments bearing the trace of Buddhist workmanship, such as bells and flowers, and even fragmentary *jatakas*, the sacred Birth-stories, occur. Many of the stones bear the imprint of masons' marks—tridents, swords, fishes, and characters derived from the Nagari and Páli alphabets. While the magazine and main portions of the fortress stand on a conspicuous height, defended by natural precipices, the lower part lies scarcely above the inundation level of the Ganges, and was flooded in 1875.

Tradition assigns a high antiquity to the fort of Chanár. Bharti Náth, king of Ujain, and brother of the half-historic Vikramáditya, is said to have chosen this solitary wooded rock overhanging the Ganges as the site of his hermitage. The great Prithwi Rájá is also said to have dwelt in the fortress; and a mutilated slab over the gateway long commemorated its ransom from the Muhammadan invaders. The present buildings are, as above mentioned, the work of later Musalmán conquerors, who adapted the ancient Hindu fortifications to their more

modern military requirements. The fort passed through many changes of masters, under the Pathan and Mughal dynasties; it was held for Akbar, by a general whose descendants still linger in obscurity around its base; and it finally fell into the hands of Rájá Balwant Singh of Benares about the year 1750 (*see* MIRZAPUR DISTRICT). The British troops, under Major Munro, attacked it without success in 1763; but it came into our possession after the battle of Buxar, in the following year. After Rájá Chait Singh's outbreak in 1781, Warren Hastings retired to Chanár, where a force was collected under Major Popham, which expelled Chait Singh from his strongholds in the neighbourhood, and finally drove him into the Gwalior territory. Hastings was fond of the situation and climate of Chanár; his house is still pointed out on the summit, and remains the principal edifice to this day.

The fort is now used as a place of confinement for State prisoners, and is held by a small garrison. The ordnance enclosure and the magazine are at the north-west end of the plateau overlooking the river. The fort is armed with 18 guns, of various calibre up to 32-pounders, four 8-inch mortars, and 1200 barrels of gunpowder. The garrison would have to be strengthened to over 500 men if the place were to be defended against an attacking force, as several positions would have to be held outside. Warren Hastings' house is now used as barracks for a company of British infantry; and his staff-quarters adjoining to it form (1883) the residence of three Kúka prisoners. A little to the east lies the tomb of a Muhammadan saint, whose piety was clearly established, when he was carried prisoner to Delhi, by his fetters dropping off each evening at time of prayer. The last act of the dying man was to shoot an arrow from the fort into the jungle, to fix the site of his tomb. His mausoleum lies at a rather long bow-shot from the fortress; other Muhammadan mausoleums have grown up around it, and a cemetery in a beautiful garden. It is visited each year by crowds of devotees, both Hindus and Musalmáns, but especially the former, who present offerings of rice, and tie a knot on a long string which hangs down in the sanctuary, breathing at the same time a wish or a vow. The town of Chanár is the seat of a flourishing native literary society, and has a reading-room, telegraph office, and dispensary.

Chánchrá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; about a mile south of Jessor town, and the residence of the Rájás of Chánchrá or Jessor. Lat. 23° 9′ 0″ N., long. 89° 14′ 45″ E. The Chánchrá family traces its origin to one Bhabeswar Rái, a soldier in Khán-i-Azam's army, who received a grant of 4 *parganás* out of the territories conquered from Pratápáditya (*vide* JESSOR DISTRICT). He died in 1588 A.D., and his successors added considerably to the original domain. His grandson, Manohar Rái (1649–1705), is looked upon as the principal founder of the family; and at his death, the estate was by far

Chándá became a province of the Bhonsla family. The loss of its independence marks the close of its prosperity. Contested successions among the Maráthá rulers afforded an opportunity for an unsuccessful Gond rising in 1773 under the son of Nílkánt Sháh, who, after being defeated and imprisoned, was in 1788 pensioned off by the Maráthás on £60 a year. The Maráthá succession was then adjusted by one claimant slaying the other with his own hand.

Chándá next suffered from the Pindárís. About 1800, these organized banditti spread over the District, till few villages had escaped pillage, and hundreds were left wholly desolate. The Pindárís ncited to action the predatory castes throughout the country, and between 1802 and 1822, one-half the population is said to have been killed off. Even in the walled city of Chándá, the number of houses diminished in nearly this proportion. The death of the Maráthá Rájá in 1816 left the succession to his only son, Parsojí. Blind, lame, and paralyzed, and with an intellect as feeble as his body, this unhappy prince, after being used as a tool in the hands of contending court factions, was found dead in his bed—strangled, as was afterwards discovered, by the secret orders of his cousin, Apá Sáhib, who, as next of kin, now became Rájá of Nágpur. After various acts of treachery and hostility, Apá Sáhib surrendered to the British, and was reinstated by them, but faithlessly allied himself with the Peshwá against them. In 1818, he was seized by the Resident at Nágpur, on the eve of his throwing himself into Chándá. His ally, the Peshwá Bájí Ráo, pushed on to meet him within 10 miles of Chándá, when his progress was also checked by a British force; and on the 17th April 1818, he was routed at Pandarkankrá, west of the Wardhá river. The English army then laid siege to Chándá, and on the 2nd May carried it by storm in spite of the desperate resistance of the garrison. The *kiládár* (commandant) himself fell fighting gallantly at the head of his soldiers; and the conquerors, admiring his courage, spared his house amid the sack of the town.

The faithless Apá Sáhib was deposed by the British Government; and the administration of the country was conducted by the Resident, acting in the name and during the minority of the new Rájá, Raghují, with British officers in charge of each District. Under their administration, the disaffected Gonds returned to habits of order, plundering was checked, assessments were reduced, irrigation works were restored, and education was encouraged. But when, in 1830, the government was made over to the Rájá, his narrow and grinding policy checked the progress which had begun, and plundering again prevailed through the country. In 1853, Raghují III. died without an heir; and Chándá, with the rest of the Nágpur Province, was incorporated into the British Empire, the administration being conducted by a

Commission under the Supreme Government. During the Mutiny, the wild nature of the country, the innate predatory habits of the Gonds, and the proximity of the Haidarábád territory, caused great anxiety; but it was not till March 1858 that order was disturbed. Bábu Ráo, a petty chief of Monampallí in the Ahíri *zamíndárí*, then began to plunder the Rájgarh *parganá*. He was soon joined by Vyankat Ráo, *zamíndár* of Arpallí and Ghot; and the two leaders, collecting a band of Rohillás and Gonds, openly declared rebellion. On the night of the 29th April, Messrs. Gartland, Hall, and Peter, telegraph employés, were attacked by a party of the rebels near Chunchgundí, on the Pránhitá river. Messrs. Gartland and Hall were killed, but Mr. Peter contrived to escape, and joined Captain Crichton, then Deputy Commissioner. Afterwards, disguised as a native, Mr. Peter succeeded in delivering to a leading lady *zamíndár*, Lakshmí Bái, a letter from Captain Crichton; and by her exertions Bábu Ráo was captured. He suffered death at Chándá, on the 21st October 1858. Vyankat Ráo escaped to Bastár; but in April 1860 he was arrested by the Rájá of that State, and handed over to the British authorities, by whom he was sentenced to transportation for life, with forfeiture of all his property.

Population.—The population of Chándá District (after allowing for an increase of 1085 square miles by the incorporation of four *táluks* of the abolished Upper Godávarí District in 1878-79) was returned, according to the Census of 1872, at 558,856. In 1881 the population numbered 649,146, showing an increase of 90,290, or 16·16 per cent., in the nine years. This rapid increase, above the natural excess of births over deaths, is attributed partly to a considerable immigration from the Nizám's territories into the Sironcha Sub-division, and partly to the greater accuracy of the Census of 1881. The details of the enumeration are as follows:—Total population, 649,146, namely, males 326,824, and females 322,322, spread over an area of 10,785 square miles, and living in 2804 villages and towns; number of houses, 170,549, of which 148,135 are occupied and 22,414 unoccupied; average density of population, 60·2 per square mile; number of villages, ·26 per square mile; number of houses, 13·74 per square mile; persons per village, 232; persons per occupied house, 4·38. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 499,327; Kabírpanthís, 1064; Satnámís, 173; Muhammadans, 10,987; Sikhs, 5; Christians, 289; Jains, 737; and aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive forms of faith, 136,564. The ethnical division returns the undoubted Hindu castes at 474,769; indefinite castes at 3685; and the non-Hindu or aboriginal tribes at 158,679, of whom 154,701 were Dravidian Gonds, 1466 other Dravidians, and 2513 Kolarian tribes or unspecified.

Among Hindus proper, Bráhmans numbered 6458, and Rájputs 2221; the inferior Hindu castes above 5000 in number being—Kurmís, the principal agricultural caste, and the most numerous in the District, 92,806; Máhars, weavers, day-labourers, and village watchmen, 72,472; Gauri, herdsmen, carters, etc., corresponding to the Goála caste in Bengal, 42,796; Mára, cultivators, 32,001; Telí, oil-pressers, 31,126; Mára, cultivators, 28,806; Dhimárs, fishermen, dealers in jungle products, etc., 27,875; Koshtí, weavers, 13,246; Kalár, spirit-sellers, 10,689; Nái, barbers, 5466. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials and learned professions, 6937; (2) domestic servants, etc., 2291; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3988; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 146,472; (5) manufacturing, artisan, mining, and other industrial classes, 53,893; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 3004 general labourers, and 110,239 unspecified, including children), 113,243.

There are only three towns in Chándá District with a population exceeding 5000—viz., CHANDA, the District capital, population (1881) 16,137; WARORA, 8022; and ARMORI, 5584. Towns with 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 74; villages with from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 795; with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 1932. The only municipalities are Chándá and Warora, with a total population of 24,159, and an income in 1880-81 of £2282.

Antiquities and Places of Interest.—The chief architectural objects of interest are the cave temples of Bhándak, Winjbasání, Dewálá, and Ghugús; the rock temple in the bed of the Wardhá, near Ballálpur; the ancient temples at Márkandí, Neri, Batála, Bhándak, Wairágarh, Ambgáon, Wághnak, and Keslaborí; the monoliths near Chándá; the forts of Wairágarh and Ballálpur; and the walls of Chándá town, its system of waterworks, and the tombs of the Gond kings. The following places are also worthy of visit:—the rapids of the Wardhá at Soit, the junction of the Wardhá and the Waingangá at Seori, the Rámdighi pool near Kesláborí, the Mugdaí spring and caves in the Perzágarh hills near Domá, and the different iron mines, coal seams, and stone and clay quarries.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 10,785 square miles, only 1148 were cultivated in 1881; and of the portion lying waste 5840 were returned as cultivable, and 3797 as uncultivable. Less than a fourth of the cultivated land is irrigated—entirely by private enterprise. The principal crops consist of rice and sugar-cane; excellent cotton, *joár*, oil-seeds, wheat, gram, and pulses are also grown, and the Chándá *pán* gardens are famous throughout the Province. The area under the

principal crops was returned as follows in 1881-82:—Rice, 245,406 acres; wheat, 83,091; other food-grains, 281,698; oil-seeds, 121,323; sugar-cane, 5364; cotton, 25,139; fibres, 1345; tobacco, 2962; and vegetables, 9644 acres. These figures include land bearing two crops in the year. Horned cattle, of indifferent quality, are bred in great numbers. Large flocks of sheep abound, principally kept for their wool and manure. The Godávarí breed, found in the extreme south, have coats of hair rather than wool. Goats and poultry, both good of their kind, are plentiful. The agricultural stock of the District approximately comprises 450,379 cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 583 horses, 546 ponies, 386 asses, 113,469 sheep and goats, 4217 pigs, 36,236 carts, and 46,898 ploughs.

The Census of 1881 showed a total of 3780 landed proprietors; tenants of all ranks numbered 112,784, of whom 18,410 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 24,605 were tenants-at-will, and 69,799 engaged in home cultivation. The average area cultivated in 1881 by each head of the regular agricultural population (253,238, or 39·01 per cent. of the District population) was 15 acres; the amount of Government land revenue and local cesses, levied from the landholders, was £29,071; and the amount of rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators was £49,297, or an average of 1s. 3⅛d. per cultivated acre. Average rent per acre, in 1881, of land suited for rice, 1s. 4½d.; for sugar-cane, 3s. 4d.; for wheat, 1s.; for cotton, 10½d.; for oil-seeds or inferior grain, 1s.; for fibres, 11d.; for tobacco, 7d. Average produce of land per acre, in lbs.—rice, 498; *gúr* or unrefined sugar, 666; wheat, 390; inferior grain, 236; cotton, 64; oil-seeds, 304; tobacco, 320. Average price of produce per cwt.—rice, 4s. 5d.; *gúr*, 16s. 4d.; wheat, 4s. 9d.; gram, 4s. 1d.; cotton, £3, 13s. 9d.; linseed, 6s. 10d.; *joár*, 4s. Average wages per diem—skilled labour, 1s.; unskilled, 3¾d.

Natural Calamities.—In September 1797, the Virái river rose to an extraordinary height, flooding the entire city of Chándá, and submerging numerous dwellings.

Commerce and Trade.—The external commerce of Chándá is principally with Wardhá, Nágpur, Bhandárá, and Raipur Districts, with Bastár State, and the eastern coast Districts, and with the Haidarábád territories and Berár. The trade is mainly carried on by means of annual fairs, the most important of which are held at Chándá in April, and at Bhándak in February, being frequented by visitors from distant parts of India. Trade, which had dwindled away almost to nothing subsequent to the Maráthá conquest, has revived wonderfully under British rule; and Chándá now promises to become a great commercial centre, as a few years will in all probability see the town connected with Bombay on the west by the extension of the Wardhá railway from Warorá to Chándá, and also with Haidarábád

on the south, the capital of the Deccan. The chief manufacture consists of the weaving of fine and coarse cotton cloths, which once found their way as far as Arabia, and are still largely exported to Western India. Silk fabrics are well made, although the demand for them is not great; and there are also stuffs manufactured of a mixture of silk and cotton. Large numbers of *tasar* silkworms are bred in the forests, and the wound silk thence obtained forms an important item of export. Considerable quantities of excellent iron are smelted, both for home and foreign use; and from the resources of Chándá in coal, cotton, and iron, and the abundance of labour, the rise of great manufacturing industries may be confidently anticipated as soon as further means of transit are opened up. The important colliery of Warorá was producing, in 1877, coal at the rate of 3500 tons per month, and giving employment to 350 men; but this output had declined to a total of 10,107 tons for the year 1881–82. The coal sells, when screened, for 10s. a ton, and has proved sufficiently good for locomotive fuel on the railways. The iron resources of the District were scientifically inquired into in 1881–82 by a gentleman of great experience in iron-mining in Austria, and his opinion of the prospects for iron in Chándá is most favourable. With the construction of an ironwork at Dungárpur, and the erection of more blast furnaces, there seemed to him no reason to doubt of Chándá turning out 260,000 tons of iron or steel yearly. He reported further that, besides supplying India with much of her steel and iron requirements, Chándá is able to open an export trade to England in certain articles now imported into England from the Continent, particularly in Ferro-manganese and Brescian steel.

Communications in 1881:—By the Waingangá and Wardhá rivers, at certain seasons, 252 miles; made roads, second-class, 42 miles; rail-roads, 17 miles, being the coal-branch line from Warorá to Wardhá, where it joins the Great Indian Peninsula Railway system.

There is a first-class dispensary in the city of Chándá, with branch dispensaries at Armorí, Brahmapurí, and Warorá.

Administration.—In 1861, Chándá was formed into a separate British District. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876–77, imperial and local, £44,395, of which the land revenue yielded £24,529. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £13,786. By 1881–82, the total revenue had increased to £87,778, or nearly doubled itself, while the land revenue had increased only to £27,847; the expenditure on officials and police amounted to £15,292. Number of civil and revenue judges in 1881, 10; of magistrates, 12. Maximum distance of any village from the nearest court, 130 miles; average distance, 20 miles. Number of police, 615, costing £8623; being 1 policeman to about every 17·54 square miles and every 1055 persons. The daily average

number of convicts in jail in 1881 was 97, of whom 9 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 64, attended by 3735 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The rainy season sets in about the middle of June, and lasts till the end of September. Showers, on which the dry crops and sugar-cane are dependent, are also expected in November and December. Average annual rainfall, 50·7 inches; rainfall in 1881, 56·8 inches, or 5·9 inches above the average. Temperature in the shade at the civil station during the year 1881—May, highest reading 115° F., lowest reading 67·1°; July, highest reading 93°, lowest 72°; December, highest 85°, lowest 44°.

From the middle of September to the end of November, malarious fever prevails throughout the District, exposure to the night air being especially dangerous. Cholera frequently occurs, and dysentery, diarrhœa, and small-pox carry off large numbers; but it may be hoped that the increased attention paid to vaccination will mitigate the last-mentioned scourge. [For additional information regarding Chándá, see the *Settlement Report* of the District by Major C. B. Lucie Smith (1869). Also *The Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S. (second edition, Nágpur, 1870); the *Central Provinces Census Report* for 1881; and the *Annual Administration Reports for the Central Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Chándá.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 19° 56′ 30″ N., long. 79° 20′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 16,137, chiefly Maráthás and Telingas, the latter including most of the tradesmen and artisans. Hindus numbered 14,340; Kabírpanthís, 4; Sikh, 1; Muhammadans, 1308; Christians, 79; Jains, 112; and aboriginal tribes, 293. Principal agricultural products—*pán* leaves, sugar-cane, and vegetables; manufactures of fine and coarse cotton cloths, silk fabrics, brass utensils, leather slippers, and bamboo work. Chándá carries on a considerable trade, especially at the great fair, which begins in April and lasts three weeks. The town is surrounded by a continuous wall of cut stone, 5½ miles in circuit, crowned with battlements, and having a crenelated parapet and broad rampart. There are 4 gates and 5 wickets. Inside the walls are detached villages and cultivated fields, and without lie the suburbs. Chándá stands amid charming scenery. Dense forest stretches to the north and east; on the south rise the blue ranges of Mánikdrúg; while westward opens a cultivated rolling country, with distant hills. Set in this picture, sweep the long lines of the ramparts now seen, now lost, among great groves of ancient trees. In front glitters the broad expanse of the Ramála tank; while the Jharpat and Viraí flow on either side. The citadel, now enclosing the jail, contains a large well with an underground passage, leading no

one knows whither. The tombs of the Gond kings, the Achaleswar, Mahá Kálí, and Murlídhar temples, with the massive monoliths at Lálpet, form the most striking monuments in the place. The public buildings consist of—the *kotwáli* with garden in front, the *zilá* school-house, the dispensary, the travellers' bungalow, and the *sarái*. Near the Jatpurá gate is the Victoria market; and a public park extends between the city and the civil station, which lies to the north of the city, with the military cantonment at the west end, and the civil lines in the centre and east. This park contains the District court-house, the head-quarters police station-house, a Christian cemetery, quarters for a regiment of Native infantry, and post-office. Municipal revenue (1880–81) £1283, of which £1001 was derived from taxation, or an average of 1s. 3d. per head of population.

Chándá.—*Parganá* of Sultánpur District, Oudh, lying between *parganá* Patti of Partábgarh District on the south, and *parganá* Aldemau on the north. Area, 130 square miles, of which 73 are cultivated; Government land revenue, £9773. The villages, which number 290, are nearly all in the possession of Bachgoti Rájputs; the Rájkumárs, one branch of that clan, owning 114; and the Rájwárs, another branch, 138. About half the *parganá*, or 146 villages, is held in *tálukdári*, and 144 villages in *zamíndárí* tenure. Population (1881), Hindus, 71,408; Muhammadans, 5382: total, 76,790, viz. 39,069 males and 37,721 females. Among high castes, the most numerous are Bráhmans (14,091), and Rájputs (7662); among low castes, Chamárs (14,883), and Ahírs (6325). The road from Jaunpur to Lucknow runs through the *parganá*.

Chándála.—Small *zamíndárí* or estate in the Múl *tahsíl* of Chándá District, Central Provinces. Area, 17 square miles, containing 7 villages, with 117 occupied houses, and a population (1881) of 675. The *zamíndárí* is of recent creation, having been granted to the first holder about 1820.

Chandan.—River rising in the hills near Deogarh, in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. It flows a northerly course, and is fed by numerous tributaries. As it approaches the Ganges, it throws off branches to the east and west; and at its point of junction with the great river, near Bhágalpur town, its main channel is reduced to insignificant dimensions. Greatest width, 1500 feet from bank to bank. Except in the rains, its channel is a mere bed of coarse sand; but it is liable to sudden and violent inundations, which do great damage to the surrounding country. Embankments are constructed on both sides.

Chandarnagar (popularly *Chundernagore*, correctly *Chandan-nagar*—'City of Sandalwood').—French settlement, within the boundaries of Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, a short distance below Chinsurah. Lat. 22° 51′ 40″ N., long. 88° 24′ 50″ E.

Chandarnagar, occupied by the French in 1673, was acquired in 1688, and rose to importance in the time of Dupleix, during whose administration (1731–41) more than 2000 brick houses were erected, and a considerable maritime trade was developed. In 1757 it was bombarded by Admiral Watson, and captured; the fortifications and houses were afterwards demolished. On peace being established, the town was restored to the French in 1763. When hostilities broke out in 1794, it was again seized by the English; restored by treaty, 1802; retaken the same year; and held by them till the Peace of 1815 definitively made it over to the French, 4th December 1816. All the former grandeur of Chandarnagar has now passed away, and at present it is a quiet suburban town, with but little external trade. It continues, however, the official seat of a French sub-governor, with a few soldiers. The railway station, on the East Indian Railway, is just outside French territory, 22 miles from Calcutta (Howrah). Chandarnagar receives from the English Government 300 chests of opium annually, on condition that the inhabitants do not engage in the manufacture of that article. The sub-governor is subordinate to the French Governor-General at Pondicherry.

Chandauli.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Benares District, North-Western Provinces, including the whole portion of the District on the right bank of the Ganges. Traversed by the East Indian Railway, with a branch from Mughal Sarai to the bank opposite Benares. Area, 418 square miles, of which 335 are cultivated; population (1881) 240,698; land revenue, £28,634; total Government revenue, £31,597; rental paid by cultivators, £66,617. The *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 3 criminal courts, with 6 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 81 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 507.

Chandausí. — Town in Morádábád District, North-Western Provinces, 27 miles from Morádábád town. Lat. 28° 27′ 5″ N., long. 78° 49′ 20″ E.; population (1882) 27,521, namely, 20,381 Hindus, 6990 Muhammadans, 29 Jains, 118 Christians, and 3 'others;' area, 220 acres. Municipal income in 1881–82, £1238, derived principally from octroi. Lies on the Budáun road, 28 miles south of Moradábád, and 4 miles west of the Sot river. Station on Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, with junction for Aligarh branch. Principal mart for surrounding parts of Rohilkhand; considerable export trade in sugar. Large cotton-pressing factory, under European management. Dispensary, and telegraph office. Extensive quarries of *kankar* or nodular limestone.

Chandavolu (*Tsandavolu*). — Town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 1′ N., long. 80° 40′ E.; houses, 560; population (1881) 2895, namely, 1992 Hindus, 896 Muhammadans, and 7 Christians. A large treasure of gold bricks was found here in 1873.

Chándbálí.—River port on the left bank of the Baitaraní river, Balasor District, Orissa. Lat. 20° 46′ 30″ N., long. 86° 47′ 56″ E. This place has risen to importance only within the last few years, and is now the centre of a rapidly growing trade. Several steamers ply regularly between Calcutta and Chándbálí, and an idea has been entertained of making the latter a sea-bathing place for the metropolis. Value of imports, 1873–74, £112,143, exports £61,436; 1881–82, imports £435,672, exports £339,170. The trade in merchandise is supplemented by a passenger traffic, which in 1874–75 amounted to 32,000 persons either way. A portion of these passengers are pilgrims on their way to and from the shrine of Jagannáth—chiefly up-country people of the middle class, who can afford to pay their fare by rail to Calcutta, and by steamer to Orissa. There is also a strictly local passenger traffic of Uriyás, who resort to Calcutta in considerable numbers in search of domestic service.

Chanderi.—District in Gwalior State, Central India. Contains 380 villages, transferred in full sovereignty to the British Government by the treaty of 1860, among other Districts, for the maintenance of the Gwalior Contingent. Chief town, CHANDERI.

Chanderi.—Town in Sindhia's territory, Gwalior, Central India, and head-quarters of Chanderi District; at present an insignificant place, but once a fortified town of importance and splendour. Lat. 24° 42′ 0″ N., long. 78° 11′ 0″ E. Distant 105 miles south of Gwalior, 170 south of Agra, and 280 south of Delhi. According to the *Ain-i-Akbarí*, it contained '14,000 stone houses, 384 markets, 360 caravanserais, and 12,000 mosques.' The fort, surrounded by a sandstone rampart, and guarded by circular towers, is situated on a high hill. It was a place of great strength, and at one time sustained a siege of eight months. The ruins which remain show that some of the buildings of the ancient city must have been of considerable size and magnificence. Among other memorials of the former greatness of Chánderi, a pass cut through a solid rock, 100 feet high, is conspicuous. The rock bears an inscription, stating that the lofty gate of Gúmti and Karauli, near the tank, was built in 1301 by Ghiás-ud-dín, Emperor of Delhi.

Chandgáon.—Town in the head-quarters Sub-division of Chittagong District. Population (1881) 5276, namely, 2602 males and 2674 females.

Chándisthán. — Shrine in Basdeopur village, Monghyr District, Bengal; sacred to Chándi, the tutelary goddess of the place. The shrine is covered by a small brick building.

Chándkhálí.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal; situated on the Kabadak, about 10 miles north of the point where that river enters the Sundarban forest. Lat. 22° 32′ 0″ N., long. 89° 17′ 30″ E. Chándkhálí

was one of the villages founded about 1782 by Mr. Henckell, the Magistrate, in pursuance of his scheme for the reclamation of the SUNDARBANS. It is now a leading mart in this part of the country, to which the villagers bring their rice for sale, purchasing in return their little home stores and necessaries. Monday is the market day, and the picturesque scene is thus graphically described by Mr. J. Westland in his District Report on Jessor:—'If one were to visit Chándkhálí on an ordinary day, one would see a few sleepy huts on the river bank, and pass it by as some insignificant village. The huts are, many of them, shops, and they are situated round a square; but there are no purchasers to be seen, and the square is deserted. On Sunday, however, large native craft come up from all directions, but chiefly from Calcutta, and anchor along the banks of the river and creek, waiting for the market. On Monday, boats pour in from all directions laden with grain, and others come with purchasers. The river, a large enough one, and the *khál* or creek, become alive with native craft and boats, pushing in among each other, and literally covering the face of the water. Sales are going on rapidly amid all the hubbub; and the traders and merchants are filling their ships with the grain which the husbandmen have brought alongside and sold to them. The greater part of the traffic takes place on the water; but on land, too, it is a busy sight. On water or on land, there is probably a representative from nearly every house for miles around. They have come to sell their grain and to buy their stores; numberless hawkers have come to offer these stores for sale—oil, turmeric, tobacco, vegetables, and all the other luxuries of a peasant's life. By evening, the business is done; the husbandmen turn their boats homewards; the hawkers go off to the next market village, or procure fresh supplies; and with the first favourable tide the ships weigh anchor, and take their cargoes away to Calcutta. By Tuesday morning the place is deserted.' Chándkhálí is also the principal seat of the Sundarbans wood trade. Police outpost station.

Chándko.—The old name for a fertile tract of alluvial land in Sind, Bombay Presidency, on the right bank of the Indus, lying between 26° 40′ and 27° 20′ N. lat., and between 67° 25′ and 68° E. long. It is inhabited by the Chándia tribe, to the chief of whom a portion was made over in *jágír* by the Talpur dynasty in 1818. In 1842, Wáli Muhammad, the then *jágírdár*, having shown sympathy with the hostile Mírs, this estate was seized by Mír Alí Murád of Khairpur. Sir C. Napier, however, restored it. In 1859, the original portion was confirmed to the present chief, Ghaibi Khán Chándra. The chief town of this tract is GHAIBI DERO.

Chándod.—Village and place of Hindu pilgrimage in Gujarát (Guzerát), within the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda, Bombay

Presidency; population (1881) 4200. Situated 30 miles south-east of Baroda, on the right bank of the river Narbadá (Nerbudda), in lat. 21° 58′ N., and long. 73° 29′ E., and 12 miles south of Dabhoi, with which town it is connected by a narrow-gauge State Railway, a branch of which terminates there. Close to Chándod is the village of Karnáli, and territory of the petty Rájá of Mándwa. Both these villages, the temples, and certain sacred spots on the river, are twice a year visited by from 20,000 to 25,000 persons. The chief fairs are held on the full moon of Kártik (October–November) and Chaitra (March and April). Forbes wrote a century ago, what is still the truth: 'No place in the Western Province of Hindustan is reputed so holy as Chándod; none at least exceed it; its temples and seminaries almost vie with the fane of Jagannáth and the colleges of Benares.' Should the Narbadá take the place of the Ganges in the estimation of the pious, Chándod would become its Benares. Branch post-office; two *dharmsálás*.

Chándor (or *Chándwar*).—Sub-division occupying the centre of Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Area (1881) 385 square miles, containing 2 towns and 106 villages, with 8177 occupied houses. Population, 50,899, namely, males 25,917, and females 24,982. Hindus numbered 44,485; Muhammadans, 2414; and 'others,' 4400. Except in the eastern corner, which is roughened by bare hills and which drains east to the Girná, Chándor is a waving plain, sloping gently down to the Godávarí. In the centre and south the soil is a deep rich black alluvium, yielding heavy crops of wheat and gram. In other parts, the soil is poor and shallow. The Sub-division is well provided with roads. The cultivators are generally in debt, but some villages show signs of material comfort. Of 118,487 acres under cultivation in 1880–81, grain crops occupied 96,115 acres, or 81·11 per cent.; pulses, 14,350 acres, or 12·11 per cent.; oil-seeds, 5652 acres, or 4·77 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 2257, or 1·90 per cent. In 1880–81, the number of holdings was returned at 3530, with an average area of a little over 43 acres, paying an average rental to Government of £3, 5s. 7½d. Divided among the agricultural population, these holdings show an average allotment of 17½ acres per head, each paying an average land-tax of £1, 6s. 6d. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts and 1 police station (*thánά*); strength of regular police, 28 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 130.

Chándor (*Chándwar*).—Town in Chándor Sub-division, Násik District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 20° 19′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 19′ 0″ E., at the foot of a range of hills varying from 4000 to 4500 feet in height, 40 miles north-east of Násik town. Population (1881) 4892, namely, Hindus, 3551; Muhammadans, 1061; Jains, 73; Christians, 6; 'others,' 201. Before the opening of the railway,

there was a small manufacture of copper and brass pots and ironwork.
A market is held here once a week, and there is a post-office.
Chándor is said to have been founded by Holkar in 1763, and
and the scrub jungle ...
The Chandragiri Telugu cultivators are probably the best ...
District, hard-working, and fond of high farming. Extensive and valuable forests cover about 300 square miles, but these have only recently been brought under a proper system of conservancy. The land revenue demand in 1882–83 amounted to £8166. In the same year, the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts, being subject in civil matters to the jurisdiction of the *munsif's* court at Tripáti. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 10; strength of police force, 104 men.

Chandragiri. — Town in the Chandragiri *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated on the right bank of the Suvarnamukhi river, 16 miles south of the Tripáti railway station, in lat. 13° 35′ 15″ N., and long. 79° 21′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 4193, namely, 3811 Hindus and 382 Muhammadans. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it contains the usual sub-divisional public offices, jail, post-office, etc. Historically, Chandragiri presents much of interest, having been, after the defeat of Tálikot in 1564, the residence of the Rájás of Vijayanagar. The fort, built about 1510, fell in 1646 into the power of the Golconda chief, from whom it was wrested, a century later, by the Nawáb of Arcot. In 1758 it was held

£512. Chandpur, which in 1868 was officially described by the Sanitary Commissioner as the 'filthiest place in this Province,' is now a well paved and drained town, with a thriving appearance, and containing several fine brick-built houses. Besides the usual *tahsílí* courts and offices, it contains an imperial post-office, first-class police station, dispensary, native inn, boys' and girls' schools, five or six temples or mosques, etc. Seven unmetalled roads connect the town with the surrounding country. A considerable trade in sugar and grain is carried on at markets which are held twice a week. The local manufactures comprise earthenware pipe-bowls (*chilam*) and jugs (*sarahi*), and the weaving of cotton cloth.

Chándpur.—Seaside village at the mouth of the Húglí, Midnapur District, Bengal; a few miles higher up than Bírkul, and 14 miles from Contai, with which it is connected by a fair-weather road. This place and BIRKUL are favourably situated for watering-places and sanitaria for Calcutta during the hot summer months, and a fine travellers' bungalow has been constructed. Chándpur lies a short distance inland, well raised above inundation level, and with a fine turf lawn half a mile long by 300 yards broad, on almost any part of which excellent water is to be got by digging. The sea is visible from this raised lawn; and below is a beach of firm, hard sand, stretching for

... side. Water carriage is ... almost to the very ... summer months there is a cool sea-breeze, day ...

... village ... dwa. Both these ... pots on the river, are twice a ... to 25,000 persons. The chief fairs are ... full moon of Kártik (October – November) and Chaitra (March and April). Forbes wrote a century ago, what is still the truth: 'No place in the Western Province of Hindustan is reputed so holy as Chándod; none at least exceed it; its temples and seminaries almost vie with the fane of Jagannáth and the colleges of Benares.' Should the Narbadá take the place of the Ganges in the estimation of the pious, Chándod would become its Benares. Branch post-office; two *dharmsálás*.

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Chandra.—*Parganá* in Sitápur District, Oudh, lying between the Gúmti river on the west and the Kathna on the east, both rivers meeting at Dudhuámán in the extreme south; bounded on the north by Kheri District. This *parganá* was held successively by the Bais, Ahírs, Sayyids, and Gaurs; the latter acquiring it about 200 years ago, under a chieftain named Kiri Mall, whose descendants still hold 130 out of the total number of 150 villages. Area, 129 square miles, of which 91½ are cultivated. The average incidence of the Government land revenue is 1s. 11⅞d. per acre of cultivated area, 1s. 6⅝d. per acre of cultivable area, or 1s. 5d. per acre of total area. The cause of this low rate is the poorness of the soil. Population (1881) 34,874, namely, males 18,986, and females 15,888.

Chandra Drona.—Hill range, Kadur District, Mysore State.—*See* Baba Budan.

Chandragiri ('*Moon-hill*').—*Táluk* of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 548 square miles, containing 2 towns and 135 villages. Houses, 17,650; population (1881) 93,151, namely, 47,090 males and 46,061 females. The most northerly *táluk* of the District, adjoining Cuddapah. The Eastern Gháts run through the north, while the Karvaitnagar hills occupy most of the south of the *táluk*. Indeed, the entire tract may be said to consist of hills, more or less

bare or rocky, and of narrow valleys rich with the alluvial soil brought down from the hills. Its physical characteristics render it one of the most fertile divisions of North Arcot, the water-level being always high and the scrub jungle on the hills affording abundance of leaf manure. The Chandragiri Telugu cultivators are probably the best in the District, hard-working, and fond of high farming. Extensive and valuable forests cover about 300 square miles, but these have only recently been brought under a proper system of conservancy. The land revenue demand in 1882-83 amounted to £8166. In the same year, the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts, being subject in civil matters to the jurisdiction of the *munsif's* court at Tripáti. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 10; strength of police force, 104 men.

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Chandragiri (or *Puiswinni*). — River in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency; rises (lat. 12° 27′ N., long. 75° 40′ E.) in the Western Gháts near Sampáji, and, after a westerly course of 65 miles, enters the sea 2 miles south of Cassergode, in lat. 12° 29′ N., long. 75° 1′ 6″ E. When in flood, the stream is utilized for floating down the timber cut on the Gháts, but, except for about 15 miles above its

mouth, it is not at other seasons navigable. A fort, situated on its left bank, commands this portion of the river. The Chandragiri forms the northern boundary between the Malayálam and Tuluvu countries; and the traditions of the people forbid any Nair woman to cross it.

Chandraguna.—Village and head-quarters of a police station (*tháná*) in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal; situated on the river Karnaphulí. Administrative head-quarters of the District until 1868, when they were transferred to Rángámatí. Considerable river traffic in timber and hill products, rice, salt, spices, piece-goods, cattle, tobacco, etc. Revenue toll station.

Chandra-gutti (*'Moon-obscuring'*).—Projecting peak of the Western Gháts, in Shimoga District, Mysore State; 2836 feet above sea-level. Lat. 14° 27′ 0″ N., long. 74° 58′ 25″ E. Formerly a fortified stronghold of a series of local chieftains. On the summit is a temple dedicated to Renuka, the mother of Parasu Rámá. The village at the eastern base has a population (1881) of 809.

Chandrakona.—Mountains in Mysore State.—*See* BABA BUDAN.

Chandrakona.—Town and head-quarters of a police circle (*thánd*) in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 44′ 20″ N., long. 87° 33′ 20″ E. The site of a factory in the time of the East India Company, with a large weaving population, most of whom, upon the withdrawal of the Company from their commercial concerns, were forced to give up their hereditary occupation and take to agriculture. It still contains many weaving families, who produce cotton fabrics of superior quality; and is also a large trading centre. Population (1881) 11,801 Hindus, 456 Muhammadans—total, 12,257, namely, 6059 males and 6198 females; area of town site, 3840 acres; municipal income (1881–82) £353.

Chandranagar (or *Chundernagore*).—French town and settlement in Húglí District, Bengal.—*See* CHANDARNAGAR.

Chandranáth.—Village in Chittagong District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 37′ 55″ N., long. 91° 43′ 40″ E. Situated on Sítákund Hill, and a frequented place of pilgrimage.—*See* SITAKUND.

Chandrapur (with *Padmapur*).—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Formed in 1860 from two Government *parganás*. Certain landholders having joined the Surendra Sá rebellion in 1858, their estates, worth about £300 per annum, were confiscated and granted to Ṛái Rúp Singh, a Rájput, at that time a Deputy Collector in the District. On the amnesty, these estates were restored at the petition of their former owners; and as the Government revenue from Chandrapur and Padmapur then amounted to £755, Major Impey, the Deputy Commissioner, recommended that, to compensate Rái Rúp Singh, these *parganás* should be made over to him for 40 years, subject to a fixed payment of £413. Both extend along the Mahánadí

river; Padmapur about 40 miles north-west of Sambalpur, and Chandrapur 20 miles farther westward, with a portion of Raigarh State between them. Chandrapur-*cum*-Padmapur contained in 1881 an area of 300 square miles, and 248 villages, with 1283 occupied and 361 unoccupied houses; total population, 66,589, namely, males 33,061, and females 33,528; average density of population, 222 per square mile. This estate, lying along the left bank of the Mahánadi, is situated in the north-west corner of the District. Padmapur *parganá* forms a compact estate, well wooded and watered, with a fertile soil, yielding good crops of rice, cotton, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and a little *arhar*. Chandrapur is a straggling detached *parganá*, well watered throughout, but without any forests, and with a soil in some parts sandy, and in others black clay. The crops raised are rice, sugar-cane, and oil-seeds on the lighter soils; while gram and wheat are grown on the clay. Manufacture of *tasar* cloth. The income of the *jágírdár* is £1225. Four schools, with an average attendance of 113 boys, receive a grant-in-aid.

Chándúr.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berár; 16 miles east of Ellichpur town. Population (1881) 4816. A weekly market is held here, yielding considerable revenue, which is devoted to the improvement of the town and of the market itself. Chándúr is connected with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at Amráoti station, and draws a considerable traffic (especially sugar) from the Districts of the Central Provinces above the Gháts on the north. Dispensary, post-office, school, and police station.

Chándúr.—*Táluk* of Amráoti District, Berár. Area, 855 square miles; contains 2 towns and 296 villages. Population (1881) 171,611, namely, 88,813 males and 82,798 females, or 200·71 persons per square mile. The population deriving their livelihood entirely from the soil numbered 130,437, or 76 per cent. of the total population; average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 3·96 acres per head of the agricultural population. Of the area of 855 square miles, 792 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 666 square miles were under cultivation in 1881; 111 square miles are returned as cultivable, and only 15 square miles as uncultivable and waste. Total amount of Government assessment in 1881, including local rates and cesses paid on land, £40,547, or an average of 2s. 1½d. per cultivated acre. The total revenue of the *táluk* amounted to £48,846. It contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 5 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 84 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 267.

Chándúr.—Town in Amráoti District, Berár, and head-quarters of the Chándúr Sub-division. Lat. 20° 49′ N., long. 78° 1′ E. The station of the same name on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway (430

miles from Bombay) is about a mile distant. Travellers' bungalow near the station.

Chándúria.—Trading village and municipality in Khulná District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Ichhámatí. Lat. 22° 54′ 45″ N.; long. 88° 56′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 3534. Municipal income in 1881-82, £248; average rate of taxation, 1s. 4¾d. per head of population.

Chándwar.—Sub-division and town in Nasik District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* CHANDOR.

Cháng Bhakár.—Native State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, lying between lat. 23° 29′ and 23° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 37′ and 82° 23′ 30″ E.; area, 906 square miles. Population (1881) 13,466. It forms the extreme western point of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, projecting into the Bághelkhand State of Rewá, which bounds it on the north-west and south; on the east, it marches with the State of Koreá, of which, until 1848, it was a feudal dependency. Like Koreá, it contains large areas of coal-bearing rocks, and good coal has been found by the Geological Survey. The general aspect of Cháng Bhakár is that of a dense and tangled mass of hills, ravines, and plateaux, covered with *sál* jungle, and dotted at intervals with small villages. The most prominent of the hill ranges takes a serpentine sweep from north-east to south-west, and rises in occasional peaks to upwards of 3000 feet above sea-level. The scenery in the interior of the country is for the most part monotonous. Hill after hill repeats the same general outline, and is clothed with the same sombre masses of *sál* foliage. Portions of both northern and southern frontiers rise into bold cliffs, and seem to present an almost inaccessible barrier to a hostile advance. Notwithstanding these strong natural defences, the State suffered so seriously in former days from Maráthá and Pindárí inroads, that the chief granted eight of his frontier villages to influential Rájputs of Rewá to secure their co-operation against the marauders. The only rivers in the State are two unnavigable hill streams, the Banás and the Neur, both of which take their rise in the range separating Cháng Bhakár from Koreá. The *sál* forests are largely resorted to during the hot weather as grazing grounds; and a tax imposed on all cattle entering the country for this purpose forms the principal source of the Rájá's income. Tigers, bears, and leopards abound; and wild elephants, till recently, committed such serious ravages among the crops as to cause the abandonment of several villages. The Bhaya, or Chief, of Cháng Bhakár is a Rájput by caste, belonging to a collateral branch of the Koreá Rájás. His residence is in the village of Janakpur, a mere collection of wretched huts. The Chief's dwelling is a double-storied range of mud buildings enclosing a courtyard. His annual revenue is returned at £300; tribute, £38. The population in 1881, classified

according to religion, comprised 13,421 Hindus and 45 Muhammadans. The Dravidian Gonds form the most influential race in the State, but neither they nor the other aboriginal tribes are returned separately in the Census Report, State by State, and are apparently included as Hindus by religion. Among the Kolarian tribes are a curious race, called Muásis or Kurus, who are identified by Colonel Dalton with the Kurs of Betúl, Hoshangábád, and Nimár in the Central Provinces. Their deities are derived from Hindu mythology, and in social customs they partly conform to Hinduism and partly to Gond practices. In 1870–71, the remains of extensive rock excavations, supposed to be temples with monasteries attached, were discovered near the village of Harchoka in the north of the State. It is inferred that these remains, together with the fine old mango groves found here and there in the heart of the jungles, were the work of a more civilised race than the present inhabitants of Cháng Bhakár. The Kols and Gonds neither build temples nor plant groves; and the existence of such remains would seem to point to either a previous Aryan occupation, or to the ascendancy of one of the highly-civilised Central Indian Gond kingdoms, which were swept away by the Maráthás towards the end of the eighteenth century. The aboriginal races are generally poor, and their crops barely suffice for their actual requirements. Their ordinary clothing consists of little more than a waist-cloth; but on festivals the Kolarians appear in clean white clothing, while the Gonds affect colours. The Hindus are generally well dressed, and the better classes of all castes wear quilted garments of dark-coloured cotton, with caps to match. Two hill passes lead into the State, which is intersected by two jungle roads.

which commanded the important fords and ferry across the Narbadá at Birmán.

Chápá.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Seorináráyan *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 120 square miles; number of villages, 65; occupied houses, 6377; population (1881) 23,819, namely, 11,716 males and 12,103 females; average density of population, 198·5 per square mile.

Chápá.—Village in Seorináráyan *tahsíl*, Biláspur, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3306, namely, Hindus, 3065; Kabírpanthís, 141; Satnámí, 1; Muhammadans, 38; tribes professing aboriginal faiths, 61.

Chaprá.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Sáran District, Bengal. ... square miles, with 1642 towns or villages, and 130,041 occu-

of villages, 287; number of houses, 24,259; average density of popula-

... (1882). Dhirái Jái

Channagiri.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Area, 467 square miles; population (1881) 66,082, namely, males 32,548, and females 33,534. Hindus numbered 61,360; Muhammadans, 4405; and Christians, 317. The south and west of the *táluk* are crossed by lines of

hills, the streams from which unite to form the great Sulekere tank, 40 miles in circumference, and thence flow northwards as a single stream, the Haridra, into the Tungabhadra. The remainder of the *táluk* consists of open country, with extensive grazing grounds. The northern tract is exceptionally fertile, and contains much garden and sugar-cane cultivation. Total revenue (1883–84) £12,390, of which £9247 was derived from the land-tax. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court, with 6 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Channagiri.—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of Channagiri *táluk*; 25 miles by road north-east of Shimoga. Lat. 14° 1′ N., long. 75° 59′ E.; population (1881) 3141, including several Lingáyat traders; municipal revenue (1881–82) £101.

Channapata (or *Chennapatnam*, 'Handsome city').—Together with Sukravárpet, a town in Bangalore District, Mysore State, 37 miles by road south-west from Bangalore. Lat. 12° 38′ N., long. 77° 13′ E. Population (1881) of Channapata, 1240; of Sukravárpet, the industrial quarter, 5840, of whom 2710 are Hindus, 3115 Muhammadans, and 15 Christians. Municipal revenue, £50; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. The fort was built about 1580 by Jaga deva Ráyal, who founded a family that ruled until 1630, when they were overthrown by the Wodeyar of Mysore. It now contains a palace erected by a relative of the late Mahárájá, but has been much depopulated by fever. Sukravárpet, lying to the north-east, is celebrated for the manufacture of lacquered ware and toys, fine steel wire for strings of musical instruments [illegible] contains a large number of Muhammadans [illegible] who trade with the western [illegible] cure their [illegible] in the State are [illegible] eur, both of which [illegible] hakár from Koreá. [illegible] the hot weather as [illegible] tering the country [illegible] Rájá's income. [illegible] ill recently, [illegible] ause the [illegible] Cháng [illegible] he

[illegible] committed such [illegible] abandonment of several villages. The [illegible] is a Rájput by caste, belonging to a collateral bra[illegible]

produces the usual 'wet' and 'dry' crops. Land revenue (1881), exclusive of water-rates, £11,326.

Chanráypatna.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of Chanráypatna *tahsíl*; 24 miles by road east of

Hassan. Lat. 12° 54′ 12″ N., long. 76° 25′ 55″ E.; population (1881) 2608. Originally called Kolatúr, the name was changed in 1600 by a local chief, who erected a temple to Chenna Ráya Swámí or Vishnu, after whom his own son had been named. The fort was built subsequently, and Haidar Alí added the wet moat and traverse gateways. Small articles of silk are made by the Musalmáns.

Chánsama.—Town in the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda, Gujarát (Guzerát) Province, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 43′ 0″ N., and long. 72° 14′ 55″ E.; population (1881) 7452, namely, 3963 males and 3489 females. Contains a police station, *dharmsála*, vernacular school, post-office, and the largest Jain temple in the Gáekwár's territory. This temple is dedicated to Párasnáth; it was built by subscription half a century ago, and cost about £70,000. Its numerous brick steeples form a prominent landmark, and from a distance give it the look of a French castle. The stonework is profusely carved, and the interior, with a flooring of marble, contains marble figures of the 24 Jain deified saints.

Chantapilli (*Santapilly, Sentapilli*).—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated 5 miles north-east of Konáda point and hamlet, in lat. 18° 2′ 30″ N., and long. 83° 42′ 0″ E.; population (1881) 530. On the summit of a small hill stands the 'Santapilly' lighthouse, erected in 1847 to warn shipping, especially vessels making the port of Bimlipatam, off the rocks. The lighthouse is distant about 6½ miles, bearing south-east half-east. The light is visible 14 miles to seaward.

Chánwarpatha.—Decayed village in Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces, and up to 1876 the head-quarters of a revenue sub-division or *tahsíl*. Population (1881) 1227. Ruins of a fine Maráthá fort, which commanded the important fords and ferry across the Narbadá at Birmán.

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division comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Chaprá, Dighwárá, Parsá, Mánjhi, and Mashrak. In 1882 it contained 16 magisterial and civil courts, a regular police force of 369 men, and 2017 *chaukidárs* or village watchmen.

Chaprá.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Sáran District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Gogra, about a mile above its confluence with the Ganges, in lat. 25° 46′ 42″ N., and long. 84° 46′ 49″ E. A long straggling town, 4 miles in length, with a breadth nowhere exceeding half a mile. The site is very low, and in years of high flood only protected from inundations by the embanked tramway road on the west, and by a new embanked road on the north. Population (1881), Hindus, 39,651; Muhammadans, 11,912; Christians, 107: total, 51,670, namely, 25,116 males and 26,554 females. The town contains the usual Government courts and offices, jail, police station, handsome *sarái* or rest-house, Government English school, and charitable dispensary. It has also a station of the German Lutheran Mission. Chaprá has suffered much commercially from the recession of the Ganges, which formerly flowed close under the town; while its main channel is now a mile distant in the cold weather. It is still, however, a place of importance, and contains many wealthy native banking houses. Goods of all kinds are obtainable in the *bázár*, pottery and brass utensils forming a specialty. At the end of the last century, the French, Dutch, and Portuguese had factories at Chaprá. The District of Sáran was then famed for its saltpetre, and the Chaprá mark was especially esteemed; but this trade has been on the decline for many years past. Roads radiate from Chaprá to Sonpur, Muzaffarpur, Motihari, Sewán, and Guthní. Municipal revenue (1881–82) £2354; expenditure, £2370; average incidence of taxation, 1s. per head of population within municipal limits.

Chaprauli.—Large village in Meerut (Mirath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 50′ 15″ N., long. 77° 36′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 6115, namely, 4780 Hindus, 937 Musalmáns, and 398 Jains. Stands on a raised site, 40 miles from Meerut city. Large community of Saraugi Baniyás, possessing a handsome temple. Said to have been colonized by Játs in the 8th century. About 150 years ago, the original inhabitants received among them the Játs of Mírpur, who had been almost ruined by the incursions of the Sikhs; and since that time the town has largely increased. Agricultural centre, without trade or manufactures. *Bázár, sarái*, police station, post-office.

Bhakar is a Rajput by caste, belonging to a collateral branch of the

produces the usual 'wet' and 'dry' crops. Land revenue (1881), exclusive of water-rates, £11,326.

Chanráypatna.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of Chanráypatna *tahsíl*; 24 miles by road east of

Kunwár (Kooer) Singh at Bhojpur in Sháhábád. The mutineers, posted in great force on the brow of a hill made a stubborn resistance but

Chárápunji.—Town in the Khásí Hills, Assam.—*See* CHERRA POONJEE.

Charda.—*Parganá* in Bahraich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nepál State, the Rápti river marking the boundary line; on the east by Bhinga *parganá;* and on the south and west by Nánpárá. The history of this *parganá* is virtually that of NANPARA. Occupied successively by hill chieftains, the Ikauna family, and the Sayyids, it was finally bestowed upon a relative of the Nánpárá Rájá, and held by him and his descendants till 1857, when the estate was confiscated for the rebellion of its holder, and conferred upon loyal grantees. It is intersected by the Bhaklá river, which divides it into two distinct tracts. The country between the Bhaklá and the Rápti lies low, and has a rich alluvial soil. The tract west of the Bhaklá forms a portion of the tableland described under BAHRAICH *parganá.* Area, 206 square miles, of which 142 are under cultivation, and 51 cultivable waste. Government land revenue, £13,253; average incidence, 2s. 11¼d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 4⅝d. per acre of assessable area, and 2s. 2¾d. per acre of total area. Population (1881) 76,018, namely, 39,315 males and 36,703 females; number of villages, 177. Two Government roads intersect the *parganá.* Several market villages, three Government schools, police station, post-office.

Chardwár.—Fiscal Division or *mahál* in Darrang District, Assam. Area, 1120 square miles. In the north is the Chardwár forest reserve, lying between the Belsirí and Mansirí rivers, with a total area of 80 square miles. This reserve includes an experimental plantation of caoutchouc trees (Ficus elastica), covering an area of 803 acres. The proportion of failure among the seedlings and cuttings has been about 18 per cent.

Charkha.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát) Province, Bombay Presidency; consisting of one village, with 4 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1881) £1200. Tribute of £50, 6s. is paid to the Gáekwár, and £3, 16s. to Junágarh.

Charkhári.—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; lying between 25° 21′ and 25° 36′ N. lat., and between 79° 40′ and 79° 58′ E. long. Area, 787½ square miles; population (1881) 143,015, namely, 135,635 Hindus, 6273 Muhammadans, 100 Jains, 945 aborigines, and 62 'others;' number of villages, 287; number of houses, 24,259; average density of population, 181 per square mile. The present Mahárájá (1883), Dhiráj Jái

asily worked, while there is enough clay to give it body. Area (1881) 51½ square miles, of which 187 square miles were under cultivation, 9 square miles cultivable, and 15½ square miles uncultivable. Popu-

division comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Chaprá, Dighwárá, Parsá, Mánjhi, and Mashrak. In 1883 it contained 16 magisterial and
during the Mutiny, protecting European officers and native officials. In reward for his services, he was granted the privilege of adoption, a *jágír* of £2000 a year in perpetuity, a dress of honour, and a salute of 11 guns. The revenue of the State is 5 *lákhs* of rupees per annum (say £50,000).

Charkhári.—Chief town of Charkhári State in Bundelkhand, Central India; situated on the route from Gwalior to Bánda, 41 miles from the latter place. Lat. 25° 24′ N.; long. 79° 47′ E. Occupies a picturesque site at the base of a high rocky hill surmounted by a fort, to which access can be obtained only through a flight of steps cut in the rock, on such a scale as to be practicable for elephants. Two neighbouring elevations command the fortress for all purposes of modern warfare. Below the town lies a large lake; good roads, embowered among trees, lead from it in all directions; and a tank, commenced as a relief work, irrigates the surrounding fields.

Charmádi (or *Kodekal;* called also the *Bund* or *Coffee Ghát*).—Pass in the Uppanagadi *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 4′ 30″ N.; long. 75° 27′ 0″ E. Opened in 1864, and now one of the main lines for wheeled traffic, and specially for coffee transport between Mangalore and Mysore.

Charmunsha.—Town in the head-quarters Sub-division of Noákhálí District, Bengal. Population (1881) 7363, namely, 3638 males and 3725 females.

Charrá.—Village in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 23′ 0″ N.; long. 86° 27′ 30″ E. Situated near Puruliá town, and containing two very old Jain temples, called *deuls* or *deválayas*, built of roughly-cut stone, without cement, and clamped together with iron bands. There were originally seven of these temples, but five have fallen into ruins, and the fragments have been used for building houses in the village. Of the remaining two, the most perfect is tower-shaped, terminating in a dome of horizontal courses of stone about 30 feet high, with a circular finial like a huge cog-wheel, and the remains of flag-roofed colonnades on both sides. The slabs forming the roof are great blocks of granite from 5 to 9 feet in length, 2 to 2½ in breadth, and 1 foot thick. There is no carving about the temples, nor any object of worship in the shrines; but on the stones scattered about, traces of the nude Tirthankaras, or Jain deified saints, are visible. The construction of some large ancient tanks in the vicinity is also attributed to the Sráwak Jains.

... of water rates, £11,326.

Chanráypatna.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of Chanráypatna *tahsíl;* 24 miles by road east of

Kunwár (Kooer) Singh at Bhojpur in Sháhábád. The mutineers, posted in great force on the brow of a hill, made a stubborn resistance, but were defeated with a loss of 40 men and all their supplies.

Chatrapur.—State and town in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* CHHATARPUR.

Chatrapur (*Chetterpur, Satrapúram*).—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated 19 miles north-east of Barhampur (Berhampur), and 5 miles distant from Ganjám town. Lat. 19° 21′ N., long. 85° 3′ E. The residence of the Collector of the District, and of the Superintendent of Police. There is a school here, endowed by a late Collector, Mr. A. P. Onslow, with some house property, which includes the house usually occupied by the Collector. The oldest rooms in this house were built by Captain Evans, who managed a horse-breeding establishment here, which was broken up about 1814, after an existence of sixteen years. A weekly market is held on Thursdays, when native cloths and other goods are brought from Berhampur and Ganjám for sale. Provisions for Europeans have usually to be brought from Berhampur, and even for natives the *bázár* is but indifferently supplied. The public buildings consist of a subsidiary jail, the police hospital and police lines, and the Collector's court.

Chátsu.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána; distant about 24 miles

Charthawal.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 32′ 30″ N.; long. 77° 38′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 5300, namely, 3302 Hindus, 1958 Muhammadans, and 40 Jains. Police station, post-office. Distant from Muzaffarnagar 7 miles west, from the Hindan river 3 miles east, and from the Káli Nadi 6 miles west. Once the residence of an *ámil*, but now a small agricultural town. A small municipal revenue in the form of a house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Chháta (*Chháta*).—*Tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the centre of the trans-Jumna portion, and traversed by the Agra Canal. It forms part of the Braj-Mandal of ancient Hindu topography, one of the earliest settlements colonized by the Aryan immigrants into India. Although the *tahsíl* is situated between the Bhartpur hills on the extreme west and the range of sand-hills and ravines that slope down to the valley of the Jumna on the east, the surface is exceptionally level and uniform. Not a single natural river or stream passes through it, but the Agra Canal, which intersects it from north to south, together with wells, affords facilities for irrigation. The soil is, generally speaking, a light but strong loam, which contains a sufficient admixture of sand to render it friable and easily worked, while there is enough clay to give it body. Area (1881) 251½ square miles, of which 187 square miles were under cultivation, 49 square miles cultivable, and 15½ square miles uncultivable. Popu-

division comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Chaprá, Dighwárá, Barrá, Mánjhí, and Mashrak. In 1882 it contained 16 magisterial and during the Mutiny, protecting European officers and native officials. In reward for his services, he was granted the privilege of adoption, a *jágír* of £2000 a year in perpetuity, a dress of honour, and a salute of 11 guns. The revenue of the State is 5 *lákhs* of rupees per annum (say £50,000).

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dating from the time of Sher Sháh or Akbar. During the Mutiny of 1857, it was occupied by the rebels, who, however, had to blow one of the towers down before they could effect an entrance. The town contains a second-class police station, imperial post-office, school, and encamping ground for troops. Weekly market held every Friday.

Chatári.—Village in Khúrja *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the Alígarh road, 21 miles east of Khúrja town. A prosperous village, and site of a large weekly cattle market. Good school; post-office.

Chátná.—Village and head-quarters of a police outpost, in Bánkurá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 18′ 30″ N.; long. 87° 0′ 20″ E.

Chatrá.—Town in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; situated about 36 miles north-west of Hazáribágh town. Lat. 24° 12′ 27″ N.; long. 84° 55′ E. The chief market of the District, carrying on a considerable trade with Lohárdagá, Gayá, Sháhábád, Patná, Bardwán, and Calcutta. A large cattle fair, held annually during the *Dasahará* festival, is attended by butchers from Calcutta. Population (1881), Hindus, 8833; Muhammadans, 3058; 'others,' 9: total, 11,900, namely, 5613 males and 6287 females. Municipal income (1881–82) £488; average incidence of taxation, 9¾d. per head. On the 2nd October 1857, an engagement took place at Chatrá between H.M.'s 53rd Foot—supported by a detachment of Rattray's Sikhs—and the Rámgarh Battalion, which had mutinied at Ránchí, and was marching to join the rebel *zamíndár*

Kunwár (Kooer) Singh at Bhojpur in Sháhábád. The mutineers, posted in great force on the brow of a hill, made a stubborn resistance, but were defeated with a loss of 40 men and all their supplies.

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Chátsu.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána; distant about 24 miles south-east from Jaipur, on the Agra and Nasírábád route. An important town, in which eight annual fairs are held, most of them largely attended. A dispensary is maintained here by the Mahárájá.

Chaugáchhá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Kabadak river. A sugar manufacturing and refining village, surrounded by groves of date palms.

Chaughát (*Chávakkád*). — Formerly a *táluk* of Malabár District, Madras Presidency; but in 1860 amalgamated with Kutnád and Vettatanád *táluks*, and formed into the present *táluk* of PONANI (*q.v.*).

Chaughát (*Chávakkád*). — Town in the Ponáni *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 35′ N., long. 76° 3′ 51″ E.; houses, 1057; population (1881) 5535, namely, 2768 Hindus, 1712 Muhammadans, and 1055 Christians. Formerly the head-quarters of the CHAVAKKAD (CHAUGHAT) *táluk*, and still containing subordinate judicial and administrative offices; local funds school, etc.

Chauka.—River in Oudh; one of the names assumed by the Sarda in the lower part of its course through Kheri and Sítápur Districts; afterwards becoming the Dahaur, and ultimately joining the Kauriála at Kutai Ghát, where it becomes the Gogra or Ghagra.—*See* SARDA and GHOGRA.

Chaukídángá.—Mine in the Ránígaṇj coal tract, Bardwán District, Bengal; situated in the Singáran valley; total thickness of seam, consisting of alternate layers of coal and shale, 15 feet 9 inches; thickness

of coal in seam, 14 feet 6 inches. This colliery was first worked in 1834; in 1861 much damage was caused by fire, owing to the liability of the Ráníganj coal to spontaneous combustion. The mine was closed about 1878, and up to 1883 had not been re-opened.

Chaul (*Cheul*, or *Revdanda*).—Town in Alíbágh Sub-division, Kolába District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 33′ N., long. 73° 0′ E. Population (1881) 5355, namely, Hindus, 5282; Muhammadans, 30; and 'others,' 43. Area of town site, 2871 acres. Situated on the coast about 30 miles south of Bombay, and on the right bank of the Kundalika river, or Roha creek. Chaul is a place of great antiquity. Under the names of Champávati and Revatikshetra, local Hindu traditions trace it to the times when Krishna reigned in Gujarát, B.C. 1200 (?). It seems probable that Chaul or Cheul is Ptolemy's (A.D. 150) headland and emporium of Symulla or Tymulla; and it has a special interest, as Ptolemy mentions that he gained information about Western India from people who had come from Symulla to Alexandria. About a hundred years later (A.D. 247), it appears in the Periplus of the Erythræan Sea as Semulla, the first local mart south of Kalliena; and in 642 it is called Chimolo by Hwen Thsang. Chaul next appears under the names Saimur and Jaimur in the writings of the Arab travellers of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries. The Russian traveller Athanasius Nikitin (1470) calls it Chivil. Thirty-five years later (1505) the Portuguese first appeared at Chaul, and a few years after were allowed to build a factory there. In 1583 the Dutch traveller Jean Hugues de Linschot described Chaul as a fortified city with a good harbour, and famous for trade. It was then a great centre of manufactures, with very deft and hard-working craftsmen, who made a great number of chests and Chinese-like cabinets, very rich and well wrought, and beds and couches lacquered in all colours. There was also a great weaving industry in cotton and silk. As late as 1668 (Bruce's *Annals*), the weavers of Chaul are mentioned as making 5000 pieces of *taffaties* a year.

The insecurity of native rule at Chaul was of great advantage to Bombay. The silk-weavers and other skilled craftsmen of the town were induced to settle in Bombay, where the first street was built to receive them; and their descendants of several castes, copper-smiths, weavers, and carpenters, are still known as Chaulis, thus preserving the name of their old home. Upper and Lower Chaul, or, as they are more often called, Cheul and Revdanda, are among the prettiest and most interesting places in Kolába District, and can be reached either by land from Alíbágh, or by sea. The beginning of the 7 miles of land journey from Alíbágh is made trouble-some by the Alíbágh creek, but beyond the creek most of the way lies through shady palm groves. Except the Portuguese ruins in Revdanda or Lower Chaul, the Musalmán mosque, baths, and castle of Rájkot in

Old or Upper Chaul, and the Buddhist caves in the south and south-west faces of the hills, Chaul has now few objects of interest.

Chaumuhá.—Agricultural village in *tahsíl* Cháta, Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces, situated 8 miles south-east from Cháta town, on the metalled road from Muttra to Delhi. Population (1881) 2275, chiefly Gauria Thakúrs. Weekly market held on Tuesdays.

Chaumún.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána. Distant about 18 miles north of the city of Jaipur, and the seat of the Thakúr of this name, the premier noble of the State. A large, flourishing, and fortified town. Dispensary, maintained by the Mahárájá.

being rendered powerless. The classical name is Mek-ka-wa-di. The name Cheduba, by which the island is known to Europeans and natives of India, is said to be a corruption of Char-dhuba, or 'four capes,' from the headlands at the four corners of the island. A shoal, with probably only two or three fathoms at low water, has lately been discovered 8 miles to the north-west of Beacon Island, Cheduba. In October 1878, the Government deemed it necessary to warn mariners that 'the whole of the neighbourhood of Cheduba and Rámrí (Ramree) islands is imperfectly known, and careful navigation is necessary.'

Cheduba (or *Man-aung*).—Small town, situated on the Un river, in the north-west of the island of the same name in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Population (1881) 1032. Contains a court-house, market, school, and police station.

Chellakere.—Village in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore

Chaurádádar.—Hill plateau in the east of Mandlá District, Central Provinces; upwards of 3200 feet above sea-level. The winter nights are intensely cold, and in the hottest days of April and May the heat is not excessive. Water is abundant; and, but for its inaccessibility, Chaurádádar might prove an excellent sanitarium.

Chaurágarh.—Ruined fortress in Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces; on the crest of the outer range of the Sátpura table-land, 800 feet above the level of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and 22 miles south-west of Narsinghpur. Lat. 22° 46′ N.; long. 78° 59′ E. The northern, eastern, and western faces of the fort are scarped for several hundred feet; while to the south a small hill has been fortified as an outwork. The circuit of defences embraces two hills, divided by a dip of about 100 yards. On one of these stand the ruins of the palace of the old Gond Rájás, and on the other the remains of barracks built by the Nágpur Government. Numerous tanks yield a constant supply of water; and the exterior walls are still good in many parts. There are three approaches.

Chauriá.—Small estate or *zamíndárí* in Behír *tahsíl*, Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Area (1881) 25 square miles; number of

villages, 12; occupied houses, 101; population (1881) 526. A wild jungle tract, the grant of which to the holder appears to have been made on condition of his guarding the neighbouring hill passes.

Chausa.—Village and police outpost station in Sháhábád District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; 4 miles west of Baxar town, and close to the east bank of the Karamnása. Population (1881) 2274. Noted as the scene of the defeat of the Emperor Humáyun by the Afghán Sher Sháh, in June 1539. The Emperor, with a few friends, was barely able to escape by crossing the Ganges; [illegible] Mughal troops perished in the attempt. In the following year, after a second defeat of Humáyun near Kanauj, Sher Sháh

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Chedambaram.—Town and shrine in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHIDAMBARAM.

Cheduba (or *Man-aung*).—Island on the east coast of the Bay of Bengal, forming a township in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan, British Burma. Lat. 18° 40′ to 18° 56′ 30″ N.; long. 93° 30′ to 93° 47′ E.; population (1881) 23,867; area, 240 square miles. Head-quarters at Cheduba or Man-aung. The general appearance and character of Cheduba are those of a fertile, well-wooded island. A narrow plain, slightly above the sea-level, extends round the coast; within lie irregular, low, undulating hills, varying in height from 50 to 500 feet, enclosing several detached mounds (the highest about 1400 feet), with steep, well-wooded sides. In the extreme north-west corner is a so-called 'volcano,' from which flames issue, but which are really due to a copious discharge of inflammable gas, and not to volcanic action. Petroleum is found in several places on the island. A considerable quantity of rice is exported coastwise; and Cheduba is noted for the excellence of its tobacco. The township is divided into 8 revenue circles; the gross revenue realized in 1881–82 was £5217. Two derivations are given

for the name 'Man-aung,' which signifies 'overcoming of the evil disposition.' According to ancient tradition, a governor of the island, appointed by San-da-rá I., King of Arakan, who reigned some 2000 years B.C., so oppressed the people, that they complained to the sovereign, who summoned the governor to appear before him. On the governor refusing to attend the court, the monarch struck the sea with a rod, and ordered it to bring his disobedient subject into his presence. The sea obeyed, and in a few days the dead body of the rebel was washed ashore near the royal city. According to another account, the island was the place of transportation for those considered to be politically dangerous, whose evil disposition was thus overcome by their being rendered powerless. The classical name is Mek-ka-wa-dí. The name Cheduba, by which the island is known to Europeans and natives of India, is said to be a corruption of Char-dhuba, or 'four capes,' from the headlands at the four corners of the island. A shoal, with probably only two or three fathoms at low water, has lately been discovered 8 miles to the north-west of Beacon Island, Cheduba. In October 1878, the Government deemed it necessary to warn mariners that 'the whole of the neighbourhood of Cheduba and Rámrí (Ramree) islands is imperfectly known, and careful navigation is necessary.'

Cheduba (or *Man-aung*).—Small town, situated on the Un river, in the north-west of the island of the same name in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Population (1881) 1032. Contains a court-house, market, school, and police station.

Chellakere.—Village in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore State; 18 miles east-north-east by road from Chitaldrúg. Lat. 14° 18′ N., long. 76° 43′ E.; population (1881) 1513; municipal revenue (1874-75) £11; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. The inhabitants are mostly Lingáyat traders, to whom belongs the chief building in the place, the temple of Chellakere-amma. Head-quarters of the Dodderi *táluk*.

Chellapalli.—Town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5615, namely, 5118 Hindus and 497 Muhammadans; houses, 586.

depth [illegible] feet, and the bottom is firm throughout. The tide rises and falls 3 feet at the full and new moons. Of mineral wealth, the District possesses little or none; laterite, for building purposes, and the Chengalpat felspar and granite, used in ornamental work, representing all its known resources. The only forests are the comparatively poor growths on the Kámbákam and Nágalapur Hills, which have been conserved for 15 years, but as yet have yielded no revenue. But the sand-dunes along the coast, a large area occupying 20,000 acres, have within the last few years been taken up by private enterprise for *casuarina* plantations, which are extending year by year, and already occupy almost all

beyond this narrow zone, the water of the river becomes practically useless for purposes of irrigation. Passing along the whole western border of Gujránwála District, the Chenáb next enters the desert region of Jhang, where it occupies a broad valley, nearly 30 miles in width, consisting of modern deposits, through which the changing stream cuts itself a fresh channel from time to time. The present bed lies about midway between the high banks which confine the central valley at either end. The shores are for the most part cultivated down to the water's edge, the area under tillage having considerably increased since the settlement of the country. Numerous islands stud the river, but constantly change their places with every inundation. The depth of the stream is here about 10 feet during the cold weather, rising to 16 feet in the rainy season. At Timmu, the Chenáb and the Jehlam (Jhelum) unite. A railway bridge crosses the Chenáb at Wazírábád; and a bridge of boats conveys the road from Jhang to Derá Ismáil Khán.

Chenári.—Village in Sasseram Sub-division, Sháhábád District, Bengal. Population (1881) 2536, namely, 1844 males and 1692 females. A municipal union, with an income in 1881–82 of £82.

Chendiá.—Seaport in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. The creek where goods are landed, called Aligaddi, is 6 miles south of Kárwár; and the village of Chendiá is about a mile and a half inland.

Chendwár.—Hill in Hazáribágh District, Bengal, near Hazáribágh town; height, 2816 above sea-level, and 800 feet above the elevated plateau on which it is situated. Lat. 23° 57′ 15″ N., long. 85° 28′ 30″ E.

Chengalpat (*Chinglepu*t, 'The brick town').—District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 12° 13′ and 13° 54′ N. lat., and between 79° 35′ and 80° 23′ E. long. Extreme length, 115 miles; extreme breadth, 42 miles. Area, 2842 square miles; population (1881) 981,381 souls. In point of size, Chengalpat ranks twentieth, and in population sixteenth, among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. The Bay of Bengal bounds it on the east; on the north lies Nellore District; on the south, South Arcot; and on the west, North Arcot District. The District contains 6 towns and 1997 villages. Land

Cheduba are those of a fertile, well-wooded island. A narrow plain, slightly above the sea-level, extends round the coast; within lie irregular, low, undulating hills, varying in height from 50 to 500 feet, enclosing several detached mounds (the highest about 1400 feet), with steep, well-wooded sides. In the extreme north-west corner is a so-called 'volcano,' from which flames issue, but which are really due to a copious discharge of inflammable gas, and not to volcanic action. Petroleum is found in several places on the island. A considerable quantity of rice is exported coastwise; and Cheduba is noted for the excellence of its tobacco. The township is divided into 8 revenue circles; the gross revenue realized in 1881–82 was £5217. Two derivations are given

places with dwarf date-trees and thorny bushes, form the principal varieties of the landscape. The dreary palmyra palm (*Borassus flabelliformis*) abounds, and long lines of these trees usually mark the situation of the dams which form the tanks used for irrigation purposes. Along the north-western corner runs the Nagalapúram and Kámbákam range, the highest point of which, the Kámbákam-drúg, is 2548 feet. In parts of the Chengalpat and Madhurántakam *táluks* the surface undulates, at times even rising into cones and ridges above 500 feet in height; but there are no other elevations deserving the name of hills. The drainage of the country is entirely from west to east, into the shallow valleys of the Naránavaram, Cortelliár, Nágari, and Pálár. The soil is for the most part poor, and, where not sandy, which is generally the case, is very often either saline or stony. The principal streams are the Pálár, Cortelliár, Naránavaram (known more commonly as the Arániyánadi), the Cheyár, Adyar, and Cooum (Kuvam); but none are navigable, being for part of every year either empty sandbeds or trickling rivulets. The numerous backwaters along the coast are connected by canals, which run through the whole District from north to south, and to these is confined all water traffic. The canals are known as a whole by the name of the Buckingham Canal, after the Duke of Buckingham, a recent Governor of Madras. The Ennúr (Ennore) and the Pulicat Lake are the most important backwaters. The latter is a shallow salt-water lagoon, about 35 miles in extreme length, with a breadth varying from 3 to 11 miles, the greatest depth being about 14 to 16 feet. The coast-line measures 115 miles, and the well-known 'Madras surf' beats on it throughout its length. Except Pulicat, where the shelter is merely the shoal to the north-east, and Covelong, which is protected from the south by a reef, there is nothing which can pretend to the name of a harbour even for the smallest craft; but, on the other hand, there are two points of danger along the line—the Pulicat shoal, and the Tirupallúr reef a little north of Covelong, as well as the smaller reef at the latter-mentioned place. The average depth at Naránavaran, 400 yards off shore, is over 20 feet, and the bottom is firm throughout. The tide rises and falls 3 feet at the full and new moons. Of mineral wealth, the District possesses little or none; laterite, for building purposes, and the Chengalpat felspar and granite, used in ornamental work, representing all its known resources.

The only forests are the comparatively poor growths on the Kámbákam and Nágalapur Hills, which have been conserved for 15 years, but as yet have yielded no revenue. But the sand-dunes along the coast, a large area occupying 20,000 acres, have within the last few years been taken up by private enterprise for *casuarina* plantations, which are extending year by year, and already occupy almost all

the land of this description bordering on the sea. This tree yields rapid returns, attaining in favourable localities its full growth in about fifteen years; and as there is a large and increasing demand for firewood in Madras, the enterprise has attained such proportions as to materially change the physical aspect of long stretches of the coast, which will in a few years be still more altered by this means as the plantations mature. The flora of the District includes the cocoa-nut and palmyra palms, the mango, *pípal*, banian, tamarind, *bábul* (Acacia arabica), *margosa*, and *korakapillai* (Garcinia cambogia). As might be expected in a metropolitan District, closely cultivated and traversed by many roads and canals, as well as by the railway, there is no large game, excepting in the north-western part of the Kámbákam range, where the *sámbhar*, pig, and wild sheep are in considerable numbers, and leopards and bears are occasionally found. A few antelope still linger in the plains at the foot of the hills. Crocodiles in large numbers are found in the Karunguli tank, and in no other. It is not known when and how they were introduced. The tank was constructed in 1795 by the then Collector of the District, Mr. Place, and communicates with others. Snakes, as in other parts of the Presidency, are common.

History.—Chengalpat formed part of the ancient kingdom of Vijayanagar, and is studded throughout with places of historical interest; indeed, there is hardly a village within 30 miles south and west of Madras that is not mentioned by the historians of Southern India. After the overthrow of the Vijayanagar dynasty at Tálikot in 1564, the Ráya kings fell back on Chandragiri and Vellore; and the vicinity of Chengalpat to the latter fortress makes it probable that the power of the family extended over the present District. At any rate, when in 1639 the East India Company negotiated for the site of the present city of Madras, it was from Srí Ranga Ráya that the grant was finally obtained. During the struggle between the British and the French for the mastery of the Karnatic, Chengalpat and many other towns in the District were the scene of constant fighting. In 1760, the District, or *jágír*, as it was then and long after called, was granted to the East India Company in perpetuity by Muhammad Alí, the Nawáb of Arcot, 'for services rendered to him and his father;' and in 1763 this grant was confirmed by the Emperor Sháh Alam. From 1763 till 1780 it was leased to the Nawáb; and during that period was twice ravaged by Haidar Alí, once in 1768, and again in 1780. On the latter occasion, the Mysore chief almost depopulated the District; and what fire and sword had left undone, famine completed. Since that year, the history of the District consists chiefly of a chronicle of territorial arrangements and transfers. In 1784 it was divided into 14 separate farms, and rented out. Four years later it was parcelled out into collectorates, which again in 1793 were united into one 'District.' In 1801, the Sattiawad division and

the territory about Pulicat (ceded to the Dutch by the Nawáb) were added to Chengalpat. The former was transferred in 1804 to North Arcot, but re-united to this District, partly in 1850, when 53 of its villages were incorporated with the Ponnéri *táluk*; and altogether when the remaining 90 were subsequently made over to the Tiruvallúr *táluk*. The 'home farms,' and some other villages which till 1798 formed the jurisdiction of the 'Recorder's Court,' were in that year separated from the Chengalpat Collectorate, and placed under the officer then called the 'Land Customer,' but subsequently appointed 'Collector of Madras.' In 1860, the town of Madras, the sea-customs excepted, was transferred to Chengalpat; but in 1870 the former arrangement was reverted to, and the Collectorate of Madras remains distinct from that of this District.

Population.—Several attempts have been made to enumerate the inhabitants. The first Census, taken in 1795-96, when the District was just beginning to recover from the Mysore devastations, gave a total population of 217,372, inhabiting 59,911 houses. The next, in 1850, showed 583,462 souls; in 1859, 603,221, living in 93,310 houses; in 1866, 804,283, in 123,605 dwellings. The enumeration of 1871 disclosed a population of 938,184 persons; and the last regular Census of the 17th February 1881 returned a total population of 981,381, living in 142,182 houses and 2003 villages, among which are included 6 towns. The increase of population in the decade 1871-1881 was 43,197, or 4·6 per cent. Number of persons per square mile, 345, ranging from 598 in Saidápet to 269 in Chengalpat *táluks*. In point of density Chengalpat ranks sixth in the Presidency. Number of persons per house, 6·9. The proportions of the sexes are nearly equal, the males numbering 492,626, the females 488,755, or 502 males to 498 females in every 1000. Classified according to religion there were 939,314 Hindus, Vaishnavs and Sivaites being in almost equal proportions; 25,034 Muhammadans, chiefly Sunnís; 16,774 Christians, of whom 81 per cent. were Roman Catholics; Jains and Buddhists, 229; and 'others,' 30. Among the Christians, Europeans numbered 1683, and Eurasians 1174, the remainder being natives. Under 10 years there were 273,928, and between 10 and 20 years 200,935. By caste, the Hindus were distributed as follows: Bráhmans, 32,026, or 3·41 per cent. of the total population; Kshattriyás (warriors), 6435, or 0·69 per cent.; Shetties (traders), 16,825, or 1·79 per cent.; Vallálars (agriculturists), 181,316, or 19·31 per cent.; Idaiyars (shepherds), 55,271, or 5·89 per cent.; Kammálars (artisans), 21,805, or 2·33 per cent.; Kanakkan (writers), 15,059, or 1·61 per cent.; Kaikalar (weavers), 35,662, or 3·79 per cent.; Vanniyan (labourers), 190,876, or 20·33 per cent.; Kushavan (potters), 7775, or 0·82 per cent.; Satání (mixed castes), 14,549, or 1·55 per cent.; Shembadavan (fisher-

men), 16,027, or 1·71 per cent.; Shánán (toddy-drawers), 18,290, or 1·94 per cent.; Ambattan (barbers), 9655, or 1·02 per cent.; Vannán (washermen), 13,089, or 1·39 per cent.; Pariahs, 243,597, or 25·93 per cent.; 'others,' 61,057, or 6·49 per cent. Classified according to occupation, 1·70 per cent. of the total population, or 14,758 males and 1949 females, belong to the professional class; 0·57 per cent., or 2664 males and 2919 females, to the domestic; 1·08 per cent., or 9057 males and 1486 females, to the commercial; 30·60 per cent., or 224,028 males and 76,298 females, to the agricultural; 9·77 per cent., or 54,626 males and 41,226 females, to the industrial; and 56·28 per cent., or 187,493 males and 364,877 females (including children), to the indefinite and non-productive, 6·51 per cent. among the last being returned as 'occupied.' About 50·23 per cent. are returned as 'workers,' on whom the remaining 49·77 per cent. of the population depend. Of the males 67·13 per cent., and of the females 33·19 per cent. were 'workers.' There were educated or under instruction 101,096 persons, or 95,964 males and 5132 females; the percentage being 19·48 for the male and 1·05 for the female population. Pariahs are numerically the strongest caste; the Vanniyans come next; and after them the Vallálars. These three castes are extensively influenced by European contact; for, though the great majority engage only in the agricultural and servile labour that tradition assigns them, many of them have pushed to the front, and they now fill one-third of the official posts within the reach of natives. Of those in 'the professions,' it is noteworthy that in this District, which lies near the capital, and is therefore under the influence of the British example of toleration and indifference to caste, there are as many Pariahs as Bráhmans. From the same cause, and from the progress of education, orthodox Hinduism shows signs of losing ground, and an advanced Monotheism is making way. There are, however, no Brahma Samáj centres. The chief towns of the District are — CONJEVERAM (population 37,275); ST. THOMAS' MOUNT, a military cantonment (15,013); SAIDAPET (10,290); TIRUVATIYUR (9098); CHENGALPAT (5617); PUNAMALLI, cantonment (4821); TIRUVALLUR (6242); PALLAVARAM, cantonment (3956). Conjeveram is the only municipal town in the District. Besides these, there are 36 townships with from 2000 to 3000 inhabitants, making the total urban population about 20 per cent. of the whole. The villages with less than 500 inhabitants each, number 1443. The neighbourhood of the capital naturally exercises great influence on the surplus adult labour of the District, but this is nevertheless essentially agricultural. The people are much attached to their lands, and the literal interpretation given to *mirási* rights (*vide infra*) strengthens this attachment.

Agriculture.—The land nowhere attains the high fertility of some of

the other Madras Districts, and is, as a rule, poor. Where the underlying rock does not crop up, the soil is often either impregnated with soda or very sandy. Nor do the cultivators combat this natural poverty. The stubble is never left to enrich the ground; and animal manure, being required for fuel (owing to the absence of forests), is not applied to the extent that it should be. The absence of marsh land is a remarkable feature; but wet crops are largely raised beneath the banks of the numerous tanks which dot the District. Agriculture is nevertheless very backward, a fact attributable in part to the number of absentee landowners, who reside in Madras, and seldom, if ever, visit their properties. This leaves the land to be cultivated by rack-rented tenants (*páikárís*), checks the investment of capital in the soil, and encourages a slovenly and hand-to-mouth system of agriculture. Perhaps no better indication of the poverty of the actual tillers of the soil can be given than that the land revenue is regularly in arrears, and that from 15 to 20 per cent. of the total has to be collected annually by coercive process. The prevalent tenure is *ráyatwárí*, the cultivator holding direct from Government, with a permanent right of occupancy. Of 728,904 acres of cultivable Government land available for such holdings, 539,862 acres are thus held under 71,881 separate deeds. Under this head are included 8212 'joint' holdings, a whole village being occasionally held by coparceners. The rest of the Government land in the District, 1,089,996 acres, is reserved for special purposes, as grazing grounds, village sites, etc., or is waste. About 250,000 acres of private property are under cultivation, raising the total of productive land in the District to about 800,000 acres. Most of this, though settled in *ráyatwárí* tenure, is subject to certain *mírási* or hereditary rights, which take the form of a tax paid by outsiders to the descendants of the original villagers, for what is practically the permission to cultivate. Besides the *ráyatwárí* tenure, various other forms of holding obtain, the chief being *zamíndárí*, *mitta*, *shrotriam*, *manáyam*, and *ijárá*, all distinguished by a common system of rack-renting. About 25 per cent. of the villages of the District thus belong to landlords with privileged tenures, a large proportion of whom are absentees. Their agents almost invariably oppress the tenants, who occupy theoretically only 'at will,' and are frequently in debt to the landlord, his agent, or the village money-lender. Those who are not, are almost constantly waging war against their landlords in either the Revenue or the Civil Courts.

The soil is classified into four varieties—'permanently improved,' *regar* or 'alluvial,' 'red ferruginous,' and 'arenaceous,' or sandy, the third being by far the most common. The proportion of 'wet' (artificially irrigated) cultivation to 'dry' is as 7 to 6. An acre of the former would be assessed at from 4s. to 15s., and its yield for each

crop may be estimated at about £3, 4s. per acre; the net profit to the cultivator, after deducting land revenue, cesses, etc., and value of labour, the major portion of which in the case of the actual cultivator goes into his own pocket, averaging £1, 9s. 6d. per acre, exclusive of the value of the straw, for each crop. In favourable situations, such as the neighbourhood of tanks and river channels, two crops are obtained in the year. On dry land, the assessment varies from 6d. to 4s. per acre, the average being a trifle over 3s.; the *ráyatwárí* holdings average 7½ acres each. Deducting the land revenue and other expenses, the cultivator's net annual profit averages 13s. per acre, or on his total holding, £4, 17s. 6d. The chief wet-land crop is rice of three kinds —*samba*, *kar*, and *manakatai*—divided by the cultivators into 31 varieties. On dry lands the staple crops are *ragi*, *varagu*, *cholam*, *kambu*, indigo, pulses, oil-seeds, ground-nuts, chillies, and tobacco.

Natural Calamities.—Many years have been marked by great scarcity, arising from various causes; but in five only did the scarcity amount to famine. In 1733, from neglect of irrigation; in 1780, from the ravages of the Mysore troops; in 1787, from drought; in 1785, from extraordinary floods, which destroyed the tanks and water channels; and in 1806–7, owing to a general failure of the rains throughout the Presidency, the District suffered from famine. In 1867–68, prices rose very high; and during the famine of 1876, the starvation point was nearly reached. When paddy or unhusked rice rises to 8 lbs. for the shilling, especially if that price is stationary for any length of time, measures of State relief become necessary. The District is peculiarly liable to cyclones, the months of May and October being the usual periods of visitation. Between 1746 and 1846, fifteen disastrous cyclones have been recorded, and 1872 was marked by the occurrence of a most destructive storm of this kind. The cyclones are generated in the Bay of Bengal, and approach the coast of the District (the town of Madras being frequently touched by their centres) from the south-south-east, afterwards assuming a west or west-south-westerly direction. The area within which their action is usually felt extends from 109 miles north to 120 miles south of Madras. They have from the earliest times caused great destruction to shipping, strewing the coasts with wrecks, breaching the tanks, sweeping away villages, and inflicting on the country most disastrous losses in cattle and other live stock. The rainfall accompanying a cyclone averages 6 inches.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the small coast towns has long ago been attracted to Madras; and, except at the Presidency town, there is now no commercial activity along the seaboard. PULIKAT alone maintained its independence as a trading port until 1864; but in that year its customs house also was removed, and the coast of the District is now deserted. Land trade (except the local interchange of field

produce and the necessaries of life) exists only in the unremunerative form of through traffic; while such industries as the manufacture of spirits for local consumption, and the planting of *casuarina* groves, belong rather to the city of Madras than to Chengalpat District. The salt manufactured for Government gives employment to many thousand families, chiefly *mirásidárs* having hereditary rights to the manufacture; and the annual out-turn is valued at £526,142. Weaving occupies about 30,000 persons, but—except the finer muslins of Arni, the art of making which is nearly extinct, and confined to only a few families, and the coloured cloths of Conjeveram—none of the District manufactures have more than local repute. Metal-ware to a small extent, and indigo, the making of which is on the increase, complete the list of the non-agricultural industries. The fresh-water fisheries yield an annual revenue of about £114; but the sea fishery, though yielding no revenue, and not under any kind of official control, is a most important industry. The number of large boats employed is over 400. An extensive trade is carried on in fresh fish, brought into Madras from as great a distance as 20 miles, in baskets slung on a pole or on men's heads, and thence exported by rail to Bangalore and other places. The varieties most prized are the Indian mackerel (Scomber kanagurta), mango fish (Polynemus paradiseus), mullet, seer (Cybium), and pomfret (Stromateus). Turtles from Pulikat, and oysters from Sadrás and Covelong, supply the Madras market. There were, in 1881–82, 675 miles of road in the District, nearly all metalled or gravelled throughout, and 80 miles of coast canal. The South Indian Railway passes through the District in two directions, one the main line for 65 miles south, running from Madras past St. Thomas' Mount, Pallávaram, Chengalpat, and Mádhurantakam, and the other, which is a branch line from Chengalpat to Conjeveram and Arkonam on the Madras line, for 31 miles north-west. The Madras Railway also passes for 40 miles of its course through the Tiruvallúr and Saidápet *táluks*.

Administration.—The District is divided for revenue purposes into 6 *táluks*, namely, CHENGALPAT, CONJEVERAM, MADHURANTAKAM, PONNERI, SAIDAPET, and TIRUVALLUR, each with its sub-divisional native establishment subordinate to the head-quarters at SAIDAPET, the revenue and magisterial jurisdictions being in every case conterminous. The sessions are held at Chengalpat, 30 miles from Saidápet, where also the sub-collector and civil surgeon are stationed. Within the limits of the District, but under independent jurisdiction, lies the Presidency town of MADRAS. The total revenue of the District was returned in 1881–82 at £566,287, and the total expenditure on civil administration at £143,122. The principal items of receipt were as follows:—Land revenue, £177,396; salt, £347,911; excise on spirits and drugs, £28,741; stamps, £11,060; and licence tax, £1179. Chief items of

expenditure:—Land revenue and excise collection, £14,260; and salt establishments, £42,956. The police force aggregated, in 1881, a total strength of 17 officers and 930 men, maintained at a cost of £15,183, or about 4d. per head of the population. Of this force, nearly one-half were jail and salt guards, the actual number of constables on general duty being 499, or one to every $5\frac{2}{3}$ square miles and every 1967 inhabitants. There are 13 jails in the District, with an average daily population of 160 prisoners, and costing annually £1439. Education has recently made marked progress, and female education is spreading; 10 per cent. of the population can now read and write. The District being in close proximity to the Presidency town, the colleges and schools there, for the most part, provide higher education. The Saidápet High School, which teaches up to the College entrance examination, is the only purely Government educational institution now within the District. There are 4 aided schools, which also prepare for the matriculation examination. There were in 1881, 580 schools conducted on the results grants system, which were under the supervision of the Local Fund Board. The number of pupils was 11,824, and the sums paid as results grants was £1388. The total cost to Government of education in the District in 1881–82 was £2158, in addition to £1388 paid by the Local Fund Board on account of grants to the schools mentioned above. Chengalpat contains only one municipality, CONJEVARAM, and 3 military cantonments—ST. THOMAS' MOUNT, PALLAVARAM, and PUNAMALLI.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, considering the latitude, may be called temperate, and the extremes of heat and cold experienced inland are here unknown. Both monsoons affect the District. The mean temperature for the whole year, day and night, is about 81° F., varying from 63° to 107°. The annual rainfall averages 41 inches. This figure cannot be held to be absolutely accurate, but care having been of late years taken in gauging the rainfall, it is not very far from the truth. In 1846, 20 inches of rain fell in as many hours, and the whole District was flooded. Chengalpat has the reputation of being one of the healthiest Districts in the Presidency. The fevers which devastate so many other parts, are almost unknown in it. The annual death-rate, according to the mortuary returns, is 22 per thousand. Epidemic cholera has until recently been frequent, and, in 1875–76, caused in Conjevaram alone 1067 deaths out of 1577. Since then, however, there has been but little of this disease. Ague in the cold damp weather is not uncommon, and small-pox and ophthalmia are prevalent diseases. [For further information regarding Chengalpat, see the *Manual of Chengalpat District*, by C. S. Crole, Esq., C.S., Madras, 1879. Also the *Madras Census Report* for 1881; and the *Annual Administration Reports of the Madras Government* from 1880 to 1883.]

Chengalpat (*Chingleput*).—*Táluk* of Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Area, 436 square miles; villages, 298; houses, 16,456; population (1881) 117,218, or 269 persons per square mile, and nearly 7 per house. Males, 59,049; females, 58,169. The soil is mostly ferruginous loam in the interior, and sandy towards the west. It is, generally speaking, rocky and poor, the country being covered with low hills and extensive scrub jungle. Its appearance is, however, generally more pleasing and variegated than that of the rest of the District. The *táluk* contained in 1883, 2 civil and 3 criminal courts, with 8 police circles (*thánás*); strength of police force, 69 men.

Chengalpat (*Chingleput*, 'The brick town').—Chief town of the *táluk* of Chengalpat, Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 42′ 1″ N., long. 80° 1′ 13″ E.; population (1881) 5617, namely, 5286 Hindus, 235 Muhammadans, 95 Christians, and 1 unspecified. Situated at the junction of the Chengalpat-Arkonam branch with the main line of the South Indian Railway. As the seat of the District Sessions Judge, and the head-quarters of the sub-collector and civil surgeon and of the *táluk*, it contains the usual civil and criminal courts, as well as the court of the District *munsif*, jail, hospital, post-office, etc. There is a large *chhatram* or free halting-place for native travellers, built from local funds, and under the management of the Local Fund Board; also a public bungalow for the accommodation of Europeans. The Roman Catholic and Free Churches have established missions here.

The historic interest of Chengalpat centres in its fort, now partly traversed by the railway, and abandoned for all military purposes. It was erected about the end of the 16th century, when the Vijayanagar Rájás, fallen from their original power, held their court alternately here and at Chandragiri. The workmanship proves it to be of Hindu origin, and the site selected must have rendered it impregnable in the past. On three sides lie a lake and swamps; the fourth, naturally weak, is strongly defended by a double line of fortifications. Although now commanded on all sides by modern artillery, it has always been considered one of the keys of the Presidency town. About 1644, the fort passed into the hands of the Golconda chiefs, by whom it was surrendered to the Nawábs of Arcot, who in turn gave it up in 1751 to Chánda Sáhib, when, assisted by the French, he invaded the Karnatic. In 1752, Clive bombarded it, compelling the French garrison to surrender; and throughout the campaign it continued of the first importance to the British—now as a place of confinement for the French prisoners, now as a depôt for war material, and again as a centre for petty operations against the turbulent Pálegárs of the surrounding country. After the reduction of Fort St. David, the Madras Government, apprehensive of an attack on Madras, called in all the

garrisons and stores from outlying forts; and the stronghold of Chengalpat was thus actually abandoned in 1758. Considerations of its importance soon, however, persuaded our Government to re-occupy it, and while the French were advancing from the south, a strong garrison was thrown into it from Madras. Lally, the French General, arrived just too late, and, finding it impregnable except by regular siege, made the mistake of leaving it in his rear, and passed on to Madras. During the siege that followed, the garrison of Chengalpat rendered invaluable assistance, not only by securing the country north of the Pálár, but by sallying out with disastrous effect upon the rear of the investing enemy. In 1780, the British force, after the destruction of General Baillie's column, found refuge here; and during the wars with Mysore, this fortress was once taken by the enemy, re-occupied by the British, and twice unsuccessfully besieged. It was from the Pálegár or Nayakkan of Chengalpat and Chandragiri that the British originally obtained permission, in 1639, to build the town of Madras.

Chengama (*Tingrecotta* or *Singaricotta*).—A pass connecting the Districts of Salem and South Arcot, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 21′ to 12° 23′ 45″ N.; long. 78° 50′ to 78° 52′ 35″ E. As the direct route to the Báramahál from the Karnatic, it has been the scene of several important events. In 1760, Makdúm Alí entered the Karnatic by this pass; and here, in 1767, Haidar Alí, pursuing the British in their retreat on Trinomalai, received a severe defeat. Two years later, the Mysore army retreated by the Chengama, and in 1780 returned through it to destroy General Baillie's column. In 1791, Tipú led off his forces—the last army that invaded the British Karnatic—by the same route.

Chennagiri.—*Táluk* and village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. —*See* CHANNAGIRI.

Chepauk.—A quarter of MADRAS TOWN.

Chera (or *Kerala*).—Name of one of the oldest kingdoms in Southern India. Its exact locality is still a subject of dispute, but it is quite certain that it lay on the western coast. It is doubtful whether it was simply synonymous with Kerala, which was the name of the whole western coast, including Travancore, or whether it was an older name for the kingdoms of Kerala and of the Korigu kings combined. If the latter, it embraced, besides the present Districts of Kánara and Malabár and the Native States of Cochin and Travancore, the Districts of Coimbatore and Salem, with parts of Mysore and the Nilgiris. In the oldest historical days, Chera, Chola, and Pándya formed the three great southern kingdoms, the confines of which met, according to tradition, at a place on the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 11 miles east of Karúr. Probably the larger country was at different periods broken up into two divisions, the coast and the inland, which again united under the old

This mission first established itself in the hills in 1841, and has done much to spread both education and Christianity among the Khásis. The management of education in the District is chiefly in the hands of the missionaries, but there is one Government school at Shillong. The normal school at Cherra Punji, under the control of the Rev. Hugh Roberts and his wife, was attended in 1881–82 by 40 Khási pupils, of whom 9 were girls. The total cost was £404, almost entirely paid by Government. Soh-rah-rin, or old Sohrah or Cherra, a former capital of the State, is situated 7 miles north of the present village, at which there is a rest-house on the Assam and Sylhet road, where a weekly market is held. Coal is found over an area estimated at one-third of a square mile, with an average thickness of from 3 feet 6 inches to 4 feet; the possible output is calculated at 447,000 tons. The mineral is of

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till the period when the whole of southern India was decimated by the constant strife between the rising kings of Mysore, the Madura Nayakkas, and the Muhammadans. In 1640, the Chera country was captured by the armies of the Adíl Shahi dynasty of Bijaypur, and was seized by the Mysore king in 1652. Perpetual strife ensued, ending only on the downfall of Tipú Sultan and the capture of Seringapatam. —*See* also CHOLA.

Cheránd.—Village in Sáran District, Bengal; situated on the main stream of the Ganges, 7 miles east of Chaprá, in lat. 25° 43′ 41″ N., long. 84° 52′ 10″ E. Contains the remains of an old fort, the history of which is unknown, and a ruined mosque.

... fell in 1861, of which 300 inches are assigned to the single month of July. This excessive rainfall is caused by the circumstance that Cherra Punji stands on the first of a series of hill ranges that rise abruptly from the plain of Bengal, and catch the vapour of all the clouds that roll up from the sea.

Cherupullaserí.—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHERPULCHARI.

Chetpat (*Chétupatu*).—Quarter of MADRAS TOWN.

Chetterpur.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHATRAPUR.

Chetvái.—Village in Malabár District, Madras Presidency, and part of the township of Vádánapalli, which contains 1372 houses, and in 1871, 8018 inhabitants. No later statistics are available, as the town is not returned separately in the *Madras Census Report* of 1881. Lat. 10° 32′ N.; long. 76° 5′ E. Formerly a place of some importance, as being a terminus of the vast inland backwater communications of Cochin and Travancore. In 1717, the Dutch wrested it from the Zamorin, built a fort, and made it the capital of their Province of Páppinivattam. In 1776, Haidar Alí overran the District, and captured the fort. In 1790, the place passed into British possession, and was leased to the Cochin Rájá until 1805, in which

year it came under the direct administration of the East India Company.

Cheyair (*Chéyéru*).—River in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency; a tributary of the Pennar. Flows for some miles through the Seshachellam hills, and is crossed by the railway near Nandalúr, the scene of a terrible disaster in 1870. Owing to its steep and precipitous course, the utilization of its waters for irrigation is almost impossible.

Cheyair (*Chéyéru Bahunadí*).—River in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; rises in the Jawadi range (lat. 12° 30′ N., long. 78° 50′ E.), and after a course north-east of about 90 miles, during which it flows past Trivatúr and feeds many irrigational works, it joins the Palar in Chengalpat District, in lat. 12° 42′ N., long. 79° 55′ E.

Cherpulchári (*Cherupullaseri*).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency; situated 10 miles from the Patámbi railway station, in lat. 10° 53′ N., long. 76° 22′ 20″ E. Houses, 714; population (1881) 4501, namely, 3668 Hindus, 829 Muhammadans, and 4 Christians. Formerly

Chhnágan Gobra.—Village in Athgarh State, Orissa. Lat. 20° 34′ 0″ N.; long. 85° 51′ 0″ E. Inhabited exclusively by a small community of native Christians, under the charge of the Baptist Mission at Cuttack. The village has a small chapel, and is prettily situated on a slight eminence, surrounded by well-cultivated rice-fields. Two other Christian hamlets adjoin it.

Chhálápák.—Depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Trade in jute and lime.

Chháliar.—Petty State of Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Area, 11 square miles, containing 24 villages; estimated revenue, £1200, of which £340 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The Choháns established themselves here at a very early period. The original limits of the State embraced Vakhtápur and Rájpur, which were subsequently assigned to cadets of the family.

Chhálla.—Petty State of Jháláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £230; tribute of £97 is paid to the British Government, and £7, 16s. to Junágarh.

Chhanchiá Mírganj.—Depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Trade in rice and jute.

Chhanuyá (or **Chanúa**).—Port on the Pánchpárá river, Balasor District, Orissa. Lat. 21° 32′ 30″ N.; long. 87° 6′ 21″ E. Frequented by native sloops for cargoes of rice. The Sarátha river joins the Pánchpárá a short distance above the point where the united stream falls into the Bay of Bengal. The entrance from the sea is impeded by a bar, covered at low tide with only a few inches of water. With

the rise of the tides, vessels of about 100 tons burthen contrive to get in. Above the bar there is no want of water, and the river is navigable by sea-going craft as far as Mahádaní, 9 miles from the sea in a direct line. The exports consist almost entirely of rice; there are no imports.

Chhapára.—Decayed town in Lakhnádor *tahsíl*, Seoní District, Central Provinces, situated 22 miles north of Seoní town, on the Jabalpur road. Population (1881) 2881, namely, Hindus, 2063; Muhammadans, 644; Jains, 161; aboriginals, 13. Formerly a considerable place, but sacked in the last century by the Pindáris, from which it has never recovered. Excellent camping ground in the neighbourhood; travellers' bungalow.

Chháta.—*Tahsíl* and town in Muttra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* CHATA.

Chhátak.—Village on the left bank of the Surmá river, in Sylhet District, Assam; 32 miles below Sylhet town. Lat. 25° 2′ 10″ N.; long. 91° 42′ 20″ E. Up to this point, the Surmá is navigable by steamers all the year round; and Chhátak is a thriving seat of river traffic, where the limestone, oranges, and potatoes of the Khási Hills are collected for shipment to Bengal. The articles received in exchange comprise cotton goods, salt, sugar, rice, pulses, and hardware. In 1881–82, the exports from Chhátak by native boats were valued at £14,000. The steamer traffic is chiefly a transit one to or from Cachar, Sylhet, and Shillong. The *thána* or police circle of Chhátak has a population (1881) of 81,466.

Chhatarpur.—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It lies to the south of Hamírpur District, bordered by the Dhásan and Ken rivers, between 24° 21′ and 25° 16′ N. lat., and between 79° 37′ and 80° 28′ E. long.; area, 1169 square miles; revenue, about £25,000. Population (1881) 164,376, namely, 158,108 Hindus, 5510 Muhammadans, 749 Jains, and 9 Christians; number of villages, 315; number of occupied houses, 27,603; average density of population, 143·41 persons per square mile. The founder of the present line of chiefs was an adventurer, who had dispossessed the descendant of Chhatar Sál in the days of Maráthá disturbances. On the British occupation of the Province in 1804, his submission was secured by the guarantee of his possessions. He received *sanads* to that effect in 1806 and 1808; and it is under these charters, and one of like import in 1817, that the estate is held. The chief received the title of Rájá in 1827. The present ruler is Rájá Bishen Náth Singh, a Puár Rájput by caste, who was born in 1867. During his minority, Chaubi Chubi Dhanpat Rái, a Deputy Collector in the North-Western Provinces, was appointed to superintend the State. He died in 1876. The Rájá keeps up a military force of 62 horse and

1178 infantry and police, with 32 guns and 38 gunners. He receives a salute of 11 guns.

Chhatarpur.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Bundelkhand, Central India Agency; situated in lat. 24° 54′ N., long. 79° 38′ E., on the route from Bánda to Ságar (Saugor), 70 miles south-west of the former and 100 miles north-east of the latter. Population (1881) 13,474, namely, 11,154 Hindus, 1966 Muhammadans, and 354 'others.' It is a thriving place, having manufactures of paper and coarse cutlery made from iron mined from the adjacent hills. The most striking architectural objects are the ruins of the extensive palace of Chhatar Sál, the founder of the short-lived independence of Bundelkhand, in whose honour the town received its name. Close by is his mausoleum, a large structure of massive proportions and elaborate workmanship, surrounded by five domes. Most of the houses in the town are low, and the streets narrow, but a few of the residences of the more wealthy inhabitants are spacious and well built.

Chhatísgarh ('The thirty-six forts').—The south-eastern Division or Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 1′ 0″ and 22° 33′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 28′ 0″ and 84° 24′ 0″ E. long. Comprises the Districts of Ráipur, with the four attached States of Chhuíkádan, Kanker, Khairágarh, and Nándgáon; Biláspur, with the two attached States of Kawardhá and Sakti; and Sambalpur, with the seven attached States of Káláhándi, Ráigarh, Sárangarh, Patna, Sonpur, Rairákhol, and Bámra. Total area, including feudatory States, 39,761 square miles; population (1881) 4,612,705. The area of the British Districts was 24,204 square miles; number of towns and villages, 11,724; number of houses, 918,986, of which 888,590 were occupied, and 30,396 unoccupied; population 3,115,997, namely, males 1,546,837, and females 1,569,160; average density of population, 128·7 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·48; houses per square mile, 37; persons per village, 266; persons per occupied house, 3·51. Classified according to religion, the population of the British Districts consisted of—Hindus, 2,118,898; Kabírpanthís, 240,646; Satnámís, 356,745; Kumbhípathiás, 692; Sikhs, 10; Jains, 530; Muhammadans, 27,582; Christians, 966; aborigines, 369,928. Ethnically, however, the aboriginal tribes are returned at 770,773, the difference representing the number who have embraced some form of Hinduism. An account of a remarkable religious movement which has of late years sprung up among the Chamárs of Chhatísgarh, will be found in the article on the CENTRAL PROVINCES.

The following brief description of the Chhatísgarh Division is quoted from *The Central Provinces Gazetteer*, Introduction, pp. xxiv., xxv. (second edition, Nágpur, 1870):—'The Nágpur plain is terminated on

the east by a rocky barrier which divides it from the low-lying plateau known as Chhatísgarh, or "the thirty-six forts." Land-locked on every side by deep forests or hill passes, and remote from all centres, whether of eastern or more modern western civilisation, this little principality was, till of comparatively late years, the least known portion of the obscurest division of India. Its central portion is an open plain, now so fertile that it is known to the bands of Banjárás, who annually come with their long trains of pack-bullocks to carry off its surplus produce, as the *Khalauti*, or the "Land of the Threshing-floors." But this agricultural wealth is new. The marks of human settlement have not hitherto gone beyond the bare necessities of agricultural life, and the great central plain of Chhatísgarh is to the eye most uninviting. Nature has provided a wide extent of fertile soil, and settlers have within the last quarter of a century multiplied and prospered. Great consignments of grain are sent out annually to feed the cotton-growing population of the Wardhá valley, and to the country round Jabalpur, and the lower valley of the Mahánadí.' Since the foregoing was written, Chhatísgarh has made great strides in material prosperity; new colonies of settlers have been introduced; exports have rapidly increased; and the construction of a line of railway will, in a few years, afford an additional impetus to commerce, by placing it in direct communication with the ports of Bombay on the west, and Calcutta on the east coast of India.

Chhatnái.—Town in Rangpur District, Bengal. Population (1881) 9501, namely, 7458 Muhammadans and 2043 Hindus; area of town site, 9816 acres.

Chhibrámau. — *Tahsíl* of Farukhábád District, North - Western Provinces, consisting of *parganás* Chhibrámau and Tálgrám. Area, 243 square miles, of which 166 are cultivated; population (1881) 122,782; land revenue, £20,080; total Government revenue, £23,223; rental paid by cultivators, £35,547.

Chhibrámau. — Town in Farukhábád District, North - Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Chhibrámau *tahsíl*, situated on the Grand Trunk road, 17 miles south-south-west of Fatehgarh town. Population (1881) 7990, namely, Hindus, 6376; Muhammadans, 1596; Jains, 9; Christians, 9; area of town site, 137 acres. The town itself consists of two portions—Chhibrámau proper and Muhammadganj. The former is a quiet little country place of mud-built houses, standing just off the Grand Trunk road, and inhabited chiefly by Hindus. Muhammadganj to the west, originally a large village of mud houses, has profited greatly by the making of the Trunk road; and a well-built busy street now extends for about a quarter of a mile on either side of the highway. A handsome *sarai* or native inn, built by the Rohillá Nawáb Muhammad Khán in the

early part of the last century, and restored by a British Collector, is the principal building. The other buildings are the official, civil, and revenue court-houses, police station, good school, and imperial post-office. A municipal revenue for police and conservancy purposes is levied by means of a house-tax, under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Good halting-place and encamping ground for travellers and troops.

Chhindwárá. — District in the Narbadá Division of the Chief-Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 20′ and 22° 50′ N. lat., and between 78° 14′ and 79° 23′ E. long. Bounded on the north and north-west by Narsinghpur and Hoshangábád; on the west by Betúl; on the east by Seoni; and on the south by Nágpur, while its south-western corner touches Berar. Area, after latest changes (1883), 3915 square miles; population (1881) 372,899. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at CHHINDWARA, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Chhindwárá naturally divides itself into a highland and a lowland region, the former of which, under the name of the Bálághát, occupies the greater part of the District. The Bálághát consists of a section of the Sátpura range, extending northward to the outer line of hills south of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley. It rests for the most part upon the great basaltic formation, which stretches up from the south-west across the Sátpura Hills, as far east as Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). The highest of these ranges starts from the confines of the Harái *jágír*, and continues westward across the District, with a mean breadth of 8 miles, the ascents being steep on the north, but much easier on the other side. A beautiful valley skirts the southern base, and is again divided by an ill-defined range of hills from the central plateau, through which lies the descent to the plain of Nágpur. The average height of the Bálághát is 2000 feet above sea-level. The Zerghát, or lowland region, comprises three *parganás* in the south-west angle of the District, touching upon Nágpur and Berár; and extends in an open and undulating country. In some parts of the uplands, the scene for miles is bare of trees; but the southern slopes of the Sátpuras are well wooded. Teak and *sáj*, the latter often of considerable size, are plentiful in these forests, besides the ordinary woods, which are largely exported to the neighbouring District of Nágpur. The total area of Government reserved forests in 1880–81 was 736 square miles. Along the streams which intersect the country, of which the Kanhán is the most considerable, lie strips and patches of jungle, while the villages are often surrounded with groves of mango and tamarind trees. At Anoní, near Mahúljhir, on the east of the Mahádeo Hills, a spring of hot water gushes from the ground. Trap covers the greater part of the District, resting in the south directly on the plutonic rocks, and in

the north on sandstone. It encloses an alluvial deposit, which at Butáriá to the east, and at Mislánwárá to the south of Chhindwárá, and at other places, yields remains of the Eocene period. The soil is generally black where it overlies the trap, and red where it rests on sandstone or plutonic rocks. The only important mineral product of Chhindwárá is coal. The coal-field at Barkoí, the oldest known in the District, has been experimentally worked for some years; but the high cost of carriage has prevented success. It contains two seams, of which the upper one alone has been explored. This will yield over 5 feet of coal, with heating qualities equal to two-thirds of the best Welsh coal. Four miles west of Sirgorí, a fine seam occurs in the bed of the Pench river; but whether it extends to the north, beneath the trap in the river, has not yet been ascertained. Coal has been found in many other parts of the District; but the places above named appear the most likely to prove suitable for mining purposes. Wild beasts formerly abounded in Chhindwárá, but the persistent efforts of *shikárís*, who are very numerous in this District, have greatly diminished their numbers of late years. The tiger, the panther, and the bear occasionally prove destructive to human life, while the hunting cheetah, the wild dog, and the wolf are also met with. The crops suffer from the ravages of the wild boar, and of many kinds of deer. The numerous foxes and jackals keep down the small game in this District; but there are hares, partridges, and quails for the sportsman. In the cold season, snipe, wild-fowl, and *kulang* visit Chhindwárá, but the localities in which they are found are very few. In the *jágír* estates in the Sátpura Hills, the bison may also be found.

History.—The midland Gond kingdom of Deogarh had its capital in this District. Its founder, Játbá, subverted the ancient Gaulí power above the *gháts*; and his descendants continued to rule until the advent of the Maráthás. None of them, however, made any name in history before Bakht Buland, who visited Delhi, and purchased the protection of Aurangzeb by his timely conversion to the Muhammadan faith. This prince showed energy, both within and without his kingdom. He carried his arms southward beyond Nágpur, and made acquisitions from Chándá and from Mandlá; while he invited settlers, both Muhammadan and Hindu, from all quarters into the country which he governed. The next Rájá, Chánd Sultán, resided principally at Nágpur. On his death, the struggles which arose from a contested succession were finally composed by the Maráthás; and by the middle of the 18th century, the sovereignty of the Gond Rájás became virtually extinct. The mountainous parts of the District have long been occupied by petty Gond or Kúrkú chiefs, who owned a feudal subjection, first to the Gond Rájás, and afterwards to the Maráthás; and although the Gonds welcomed and supported Apá Sáhib in his

opposition to the English in 1819, the British Government has continued the policy of allowing the petty Rájás to retain their lands and rights as tributaries. On the death of Raghují III., the whole District finally lapsed to the British Empire in 1854. Since then, in 1865, the *jágír* of Bariam-Pagára, and part of Pachmarhi, in the Mahádeo Hills, with the magnificent forests of Borí and Denwá, have been transferred to Hoshangábád District.

Population.—The population of Chhindwárá District in 1872, after allowing for subsequent transfers, was returned by the Census at 316,228. At the last enumeration in 1881, the Census disclosed a total population of 372,899, or an increase of 56,671 (17·92 per cent.) in the nine years; this large increase, however, is in part nominal, being attributable to better enumeration in the *zamíndárís*. The details of the Census of 1881 are as follows:—Total population, 372,899, namely, males 186,168, and females 186,731, spread over an area of 3915 square miles, and living in 1833 villages and towns; number of occupied houses, 73,621; average density of population, 95 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·47; houses per square mile, 18·8; persons per house, 5·07. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 209,286; Kabírpanthís, 5528; Satnámís, 6; Muhammadans, 11,298; Christians, 77; Jains, 1451; and tribes professing aboriginal religions, 145,253. The aboriginal tribes, including 7246 who have embraced other forms of religion, number 152,509 in all. Of these, 140,739 are Dravidian Gonds, and 10,561 of the Kolarian tribe of Kúrkús. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans number 6765, and Rájputs 7574; the inferior Hindu castes above 5000 in number being—Ahír, the most numerous caste in the District, herdsmen, etc., 27,378; Kúrmí, the principal cultivating caste, 24,078; Mehrá, weavers, and village watchmen, 23,616; Bhoer, an industrious class of cultivators remarkable for their skill in irrigation, 12,691; Telí, oil-pressers, and traders, 12,210; Lodhís, landholders and cultivators, 8456; Katiá, weavers, 6963; Malí, gardeners, 6625; and Kalár, or spirit sellers, 5656. Of the two great Muhammadan sects, 11,154 are returned as Sunnís, and 134 as Shiás. Regarding the occupations of the people, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials, 3951; (2) domestic servants, etc., 613; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 1843; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 92,559; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 19,579; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 1925 labourers and 65,698 unspecified, including children), 67,623. There are only 3 towns in Chhindwárá District with a population exceeding 5000—viz. CHHINDWARA, the District head-quarters (population, 8220), PAND-

HURNA (7469), and MOHGAON (5180). Villages with from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 30; with from 200 to 1000, 506; with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 1294. The only municipalities are—Chhindwárá, Lodhíkhera, Mohgáon, Pándhurna, and Saosár, with a total population of 29,792—leaving 343,107 as forming the strictly rural population. The total municipal income raised in the District in 1880–81 was £1519, of which £1257 was derived from taxation, or an average of 1s. 2d. per head of the municipal population. The dialect generally prevailing in the Bálághát or highland part of the District is a mixture of Hindí and Maráthí; but the Gonds and Kúrkús use languages of their own.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3915 square miles, only 1304 were cultivated in 1881; and of the portion lying waste, 999 are returned as cultivable; 8115 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The area under the principal crops in 1881–82 is returned as follow:—Rice, 11,317 acres; wheat, 95,429; other food-grains, 557,594; oil-seeds, 91,892; sugar-cane, 7598; cotton, 45,408; fibres, 406; tobacco, 767; vegetable, 1977. This acreage includes lands growing two crops in the year. Cotton cultivation continues steadily to increase. Potatoes were introduced in the beginning of the present century, and supply a food much appreciated by the natives. They are grown principally in the vicinity of Chhindwárá, and the greater part of the produce is exported to Kámpthi (Kamptee). There are two great harvests in the year—the *kharíf*, gathered between September and February, and the *rabí*, from February to the close of May. The crops depend entirely upon the seasons, except in the Pandhurna *parganá* below the *gháts*, where water lies near the surface. Manure is always used in the plains, but as a rule the crops above the *gháts* are not manured. Irrigation is practised for sugar-cane and garden crops, and sometimes also for wheat. A system of rotation of crops is observed, in which the cultivators show considerable skill. The agricultural stock of the District is returned as follows:—Cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 240,287; horses, 176; ponies, 8912; donkeys, 981; sheep and goats, 31,822; pigs, 9819; ploughs, 51,235. The rates of rent per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suitable for rice, 2s.; wheat, 3s. 6d.; inferior grains, 2s. 6d.; cotton, 1s. 7d.; oil-seeds, 9d.; sugar-cane, 3s. Average produce per acre in lbs.:—Rice, 360; wheat, 400; inferior grains, 409; cotton, 60; raw sugar (*gúr*), 400. Average price of produce per cwt.:—Rice, 6s. 10d.; wheat, 4s. 5d.; cotton, £2, 14s.; sugar, 13s. 8d. The Census of 1881 showed a total of 6071 landed proprietors; the tenants numbered 111,005, of whom 15,347 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 69,719 were tenants-at-will or with unspecified status, and 24,660 were employed in home cultivation. The average

area cultivated in 1881 by each head of the regular agricultural population (170,407, or 45·70 per cent. of the District population) was 9 acres; the amount of Government revenue and local cesses levied from the landholders was £23,651; and the amount of rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, was £38,674, or an average of 1s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. The condition of the peasantry is fairly prosperous, and, except in the town of Mohgáon, there are very few beggars. The rate of wages per diem for skilled labour varies from 1s. to 2s.; for unskilled labour from 3d. to 9d. The *parganá* of Khamárpání produces the best breed of cattle for draught purposes. The cattle are white, with no great bulk of body, and the dewlap is unusually large; they appear closely akin to the pure Gujarát breed, and are quite distinct from what are locally called the Gond cattle, a smaller kind but famous as good milk-yielders.

Commerce and Trade.—The weaving of cotton cloth constitutes the only important manufacture in Chhindwárá. In Lodhíkherá and some other places, excellent brass and copper utensils were formerly made, but the industry has fallen off considerably of late years. The village markets supply the means for carrying on trade within the District. The only so-called imperial road, by which a little external traffic is carried on, runs between Chhindwárá and Nágpur, descending into the low country by the Siláwání *ghát.* The descent has been rendered easy; but from Rámákoná to the limits of Chhindwárá District, the line lies over a very difficult country, chiefly consisting of black cotton-soil, cut up incessantly by watercourses with deep channels and muddy beds. The local roads are practicable during fine weather for wheeled conveyances, except in the hilly country of the *zamíndárís*, where the natural difficulties are so great that the journey is rarely attempted except by camels, pack-bullocks, or buffaloes. The imperial road has *dák* bungalows at Chhindwárá and Rámákoná, and also station bungalows for the Public Works Department at Borgáon and Umranálá, at Amrawálá on the Narsinghpur road, and at Gonawárí on the Pachmarhi road. There are *saráis* at Chhindwárá, Rámákona, Lodhíkherá, Sausar, Pandhurna, Amarwárá, and Chaurái.

Administration.—In 1854, Chhindwárá was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with 1 Assistant and 2 *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1881–82, £37,616; of which the land revenue yielded £22,146. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £8552. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 6; magistrates, 5. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 64 miles; average distance, 29 miles. Number of police, 383, costing £4461, being one policeman to every 10 square miles and to every 973 of the population. Daily average number

of convicts in jail in 1881, 73·44, of whom 4·91 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District in 1881 was 35, attended by 1842 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate above the *gháts* is temperate and healthy. In the cold season, frost is not uncommon. Before May, the hot wind causes little annoyance, and during the rains the weather is cool and agreeable. Average annual rainfall, 43·22 inches; rainfall in 1881–82, 51·95 inches, or 8·73 inches above the average. The number of deaths registered during the same year was 7733, of which fevers caused 3678. Two charitable dispensaries during that year afforded medical relief to 13,017 in-door and out-door patients. [For further information regarding Chhindwárá, see the *Settlement Report* of the District, by W. Ramsay, C.S., 1867. Also the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S. (second edition, Nágpur, 1870, pp. 162–169); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the *Annual Administration Reports* of these Provinces from 1880 to 1883.]

Chhindwárá.—Sub-division or *tahsíl* in the north of Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces. Area, 2827 square miles; number of villages, 1426; occupied houses, 50,953. Population (1881) 262,090, namely, males 130,746, and females 131,344; average density of population, 92·71 persons per square mile; Government revenue and cesses levied from the landholders, £12,821; rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, £22,495, or 1s. 1$\frac{1}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. The *tahsíl* contains 4 civil and 4 criminal courts, with 14 police stations (*thánás*), including outposts; strength of regular police force, 133 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 822.

Chhindwárá. — Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 22° 3′ 30″ N.; long. 78° 59′ E. Situated on a dry, gravelly soil, 2200 feet above sea-level, and surrounded by ranges of low hills, with a belt of cultivated fields and mango groves between. The supply of water is plentiful, but that used for drinking comes from the wells outside the town. Population (1881) 8220, namely, Hindus, 5777; Kabírpanthís, 162; Muhammadans, 1757; Jains, 224; Christians, 57; aborigines, 243. Municipal income (1881) £712; rate of taxation, 1s. 8d. per head. The station is in parts well wooded. It has a public garden, District court-house, Commissioner's circuit house, jail, *tahsílí* and police station, charitable dispensary, Free Church mission, Anglo-vernacular school, and *sarái.*

Chhipia. — Small village in Gondá District, Oudh. Lat. 22° 3′ 30″ N.; long. 78° 59′ 0″ E. Of no commercial importance, and only noticeable for its handsome temple, erected in honour of a celebrated Vishnuvite religious reformer in Western India, named Saháјanand,

who was born in this village about a century ago, and ultimately succeeded to the headship of the great Vishnuvite monastery at Junágarh. His followers claim for him divine honours as an incarnation of Krishna, and worship him under the title of Swámi Náráyan. His descendants are still at the head of the sect. About thirty years ago, the sect which he had founded in Gujarát determined to erect a temple at his birthplace, the whole of the works of which are not yet completed. The fane itself is entirely of stone and marble, imported from Mírzápur and Jaipur (Jeypore). It is to be surrounded on three sides by charitable buildings for the convenience of travellers and the accommodation of the members of the order. The north side is already finished, and consists of a row of double-storied brick houses, with a fine wooden verandah, carved and painted. The unfinished buildings to the front are broken by a handsome stone arch 20 feet high, and closed by a strong iron door, imported from Gujarát. Behind the temple is a large *bázár*, and two square brick houses, with turrets at each corner, for the accommodation of the spiritual chiefs of the order. Two large fairs are held here annually, on the occasion of the Rám-námi festival, and at the full moon of Kártik. Throughout the year, pilgrims of all classes of society, and from the most distant parts of India, visit the birthplace of their deified leader.

Chholá.—Lofty range of the Himálayas, forming the eastern boundary of Sikkim, and separating it from Bhután and Tibet. It runs south from the immense mountain of Dankiá (23,176 feet), situated 5° miles east-north-east of Kánchanjangá, and is, throughout its length, much higher than the parallel SINGALILA range, which forms the western boundary between Sikkim and Nepál. The most northern pass is the Tankra (16,000 feet), from the Lachung valley to the Ammochu valley. Next in order towards the south is the well-known Chholá pass (14,500 feet). This pass is on the direct route from Tumlong, the winter residence of the Sikkim Rájá, to Chumbi, his summer residence in Tibet. Seven miles south of the Chholá pass is the Jelep pass (14,400 feet), much frequented by Tibet traders with Dárjiling, and connected with that station by a good bridle road. South of the Jelep pass, the range is a wilderness of forest.

Chhotá Bhágírathí.—A branch of the Ganges in Maldah District, Bengal. Only navigable during the rains, and almost dry in the hot season. It is, however, the old bed of the great river itself, and is still revered as at least equal in holiness to any other part of the Ganges. The course of the Chhotá Bhágírathí is first east and then south, bordering for 13 miles the ruins of the city of Gaur. It eventually falls into the Páglá or Páglí, a larger offshoot of the Ganges given off farther down; and before regaining the parent stream it encloses an extensive island, 16 miles in length, forming the south part of Maldah District.

Chhota Nágpur.—Division or Commissionership, Bengal.—*See* CHUTIA NAGPUR.

Chhotá Sinchulá (or *Tchinchulá*).—Peak in the Sinchulá or Tchinchulá range, Jalpáiguri District, Bengal, separating British and Bhután territory. Elevation, 5695 feet above sea-level; distant about 7 miles north of the military cantonment of Baxa.

Chhota Udaipur.—State under the Political Agency of Rewá Kántha, in the Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency, lying between 22° 2′ and 22° 32′ N. lat., and between 73° 47′ and 74° 20′ E. long. Bounded north by the State of Bária, east by Alí Rájpur, south by petty States in the Sánkheri Mewás, and west by the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda. Estimated area, 873 square miles; population (1881) 71,218, of whom 86 per cent. are Bhíls or Kolís; revenue, £16,000. The river Orsing runs through the State, dividing it into two nearly equal portions; the Narbadá (Nerbudda) washes its southern boundary for a few miles. The country is hilly, and overgrown with forest. During the greater part of the year, the climate is damp and unhealthy, and fever is prevalent. Cereals and timber are the chief produce. There are no manufactures or mines. The principal exports are timber and flowers of the *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia). The family of the chief are Chauhán Rájputs, who, when driven out of their former territories by the advance of the Musalmáns about the year A.D. 1244, entered Gujarát, and took possession of Chámpáner city and fort. On the capture of Chámpáner in 1484 by Muhammad Begár, they withdrew to the wilder parts of their former possessions east of the city, one branch of them founding the State of Bária, and the other the State of Chhota Udaipur. In the disturbances of 1858, the chief refused to hold any communication with Tántiá Topi, one of the leaders of the rebellion, and prepared to defend himself against any attempt to enter his capital. It was when encamped before the town of Chhota Udaipur that Tántiá Topi was defeated by General Parke. The Chief bears the title of Mahárávval. His house follows the rule of primogeniture, but holds no *sanad* of adoption. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and maintains a military force of 320 undisciplined men, who are employed for police and revenue purposes. He has power to try his own subjects only for capital offences. A tribute of £1014 is yearly payable to the Gáekwár of Baroda, the amount being collected by the British Government. The family moved at one time to Mohan, a most advantageous position for commanding the passes, and built a fort there. Hence the State is sometimes called Mohan. But this place, as the capital, was given up for Chhota Udaipur. It was probably in consequence of the defenceless position of the latter town, that the chiefs became tributary to the Gáekwár. The political control has since 1822 been transferred to the British Government. The main route from

Málwá to Baroda and the sea passes through the territory. There are 11 schools in the State, with an average daily attendance of 348 pupils. On account of the maladministration of the late Chief, a system of joint administration has been introduced as a temporary measure by the British Government, and an administrator appointed to aid the Chief in carrying out necessary reforms.

Chhota Udaipur.—Principal town of the State of Chhota Udaipur, in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; situated on the main road from Baroda to Mhau (Mhow), about 50 miles east of Baroda, 115 miles west of Mhow, 105 miles south-east of Ahmadábád, and 110 miles north-east of Surat; in 22° 20′ N. lat., and 74° 1′ E. long.

Chhuikádán (or *Kondka*).—Petty State in the Central Provinces. —*See* KONDKA.

Chhuikádán.—Principal village in Kondka or Chhuikádán chiefship, attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2148, namely, Hindus, 1897; Kabírpanthís, 116; and Muhammadans, 135. The chief's residence is a substantial stone building, standing in a fortified square.

Chhúrí. — Estate in the north-east of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 320 square miles, of which 27,907 acres are cultivated, and 48,538 acres cultivable; 134 villages; 5644 occupied houses; population (1881) 16,088, namely, males 8139, and females 7949; The average density of the population, 50·27 persons per square mile. The chief is a Kunwár.

Chibrámau. — *Tahsíl* and town in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* CHHIBRAMAU.

Chibu.—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* MAU.

Chicacole (*Chikakol, Sríkákulam*). — *Táluk* of Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 402 square miles; houses, 39,005; population (1881) 200,419, namely, 97,895 males and 102,524 females. Number of villages, 301, including 3 towns. Formerly the central division of the ancient Buddhist and Hindu kingdoms of Kalinga (Kielingkia of Hwen Thsang), and containing the capital of the Mughal 'circar' (*sarkár*) of Chicacole. Down to A.D. 1568, it was part of the territory of the Gajapatí Rájás of Orissa; but shortly after the overthrow of that sovereignty, in the year mentioned, by the invasion of the Muhammadan general of Bengal, the whole of the *sarkárs* as far as Chicacole came under the Kutab-Sháhi rule, and their governors resided in the town. But it was not until 1724 that Hindu influence finally succumbed, when Asaf Jah, the great Viceroy of the Deccan, and the first Nizám-ul-Mulk, took actual possession, collected the revenue, and appointed a civil and military establishment. With the rest of the 'Northern Circars,' it was assigned by the Nizám to the French in 1753, and to the British in 1766. Under Muhammadan rule, Chicacole was divided

into the three divisions of Ichápur, Kásimkota, and Chicacole. The last two, on British occupation, became parts of Vizagapatam District, Hindus. One of the early sovereigns of Orissa is said to have granted Vizianagaram till 1787, when they came under direct administration. In 1802, Chicacole was transferred to Ganjám. North of the town of Chicacole, the country is open, level, and well watered, studded with groves and marked by stretches of rice lands; to the south, the soil is dry and rocky, bearing traces of iron and interspersed with granite boulders. Land revenue (1883), £45,344. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, with 6 police stations (*thánás*); strength of police force, 93 men.

Chicacole (*Chikakol, Sríkákulam*).—Town in the Chicacole *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated 4 miles from the sea on the Languliyá or Nágavali river (here bridged), and on the Grand Trunk Road, 567 miles north-east of Madras. Lat. 18° 17′ 25″ N., long. 83° 56′ 25″ E.; houses, 3008; population (1881) 16,355, namely, 15,087 Hindus, 1184 Muhammadans, and 84 Christians and 'others.' Twenty per cent. of the population are traders; and eight per cent. muslin-weavers, the manufactures of Chicacole rivalling in delicacy of texture those of Dacca or Arni. The municipal revenue averages £702 per annum, the incidence of taxation being about 10d. per head of the rateable population. For many years considered an important military station; for a time (in 1815), the civil head-quarters of the District; and, until 1865, the sessions station of the District judge. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it now contains subordinate revenue, judicial, and magisterial establishments; jail, dispensary, post and telegraph offices, schools, and hospital. Most of the public buildings are situated within the ditch of the old fort, to the south of which lies the native town, a straggling, cramped collection of houses, but containing many mosques—notably that of Sher Muhammad Khán (1641), the *Faujdár* or military governor of the Kutab Sháhí dynasty of Golkonda—to bear witness to the importance of the old city under its Muhammadan rulers. In 1791, Chicacole was nearly depopulated by famine, and it again suffered severely from scarcity in 1866. In 1876, a flood threatened it with utter destruction, and swept away six arches of the Langulyá bridge. The native names of the place are (Hindu) Sríkákulam; and (Muhammadan) Mahfúz Bandar, after the small port so called at the mouth of the river,—Mahfúz Khán being the son of the celebrated *Faujdár* of Chicacole, named Anwaruddín Khán, afterwards Nawáb of Arcot. It was also once called Gúlchanábád, the 'happy rose-garden.' The name Chicacole (Sríkákulam) has been erroneously derived from *sikka*, a seal, and *kolna*, to open, as the letter-bags from Golkonda to the 'Northern Circars' used to be opened here for distribution.—*See* 'Northern Circars.'

Chicacole (*Chikakol, Srikákulam*).—River in Madras Presidency.—See LANGULIYA.

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Chichgarh.—Extensive but poor estate or *zamindári*, near the south-eastern borders of Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 9954, namely, males 5037, and females 4917. The population consists chiefly of Halbás (to which caste the chief belongs), Gonds, and Goálás; area, 237 square miles, of which only 12 are cultivated; 69 villages. The forests abound in valuable timber, especially teak. Each of the two chief villages, Chichgarh and Pálandúr, are Government police outposts, and the former possesses an indigenous school. One of the main District roads passes through this chiefship by a formidable pass near Chichgarh, more than 3 miles in length, bordered by dense bamboo jungle. At the foot of the pass the chief has dug a well and built a *sarái*.

Chichlí.—Town in Gadarwárá *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2219, namely, Hindus, 1827; Muhammadans, 260; tribes professing aboriginal religions, 132. Manufacture of brass utensils.

Chikadandi.—Town in head-quarters Sub-division, Chittagong District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5829, namely, 2679 males and 3150 females.

Chikakol.—*Táluk* and town, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHICACOLE.

Chikalda.—Village and sanitarium in the Melghát *táluk*, Ellichpur District, Berár; situated in lat. 21° 24′ N., and long. 77° 22′ E., on a plateau (about 5 miles in length and three-quarters of a mile broad) 3664 feet above the sea; distant about a mile and a half from Gáwilgarh fort, and about 20 miles from Ellichpur. The usual road from the latter place winds up the western side of the Gáwilgarh Hill; but a new line, giving easier access to the sanitarium, has been laid out and is in course of completion. The ascent is for the most part easy, and is made on horseback. Supplies and baggage are brought up by bullocks or camels. Chikalda has been a favourite Berár sanitarium since 1839, when the first bungalows were built on the plateau. The climate is equable, cool, and bracing; mean temperature, 71° F., varying from 59° in the coldest to 83° in the hottest months. The scenery is beautiful, and the vegetation luxuriant and varied in character—roses, clematis, orchids, ferns, and lilies succeeding each other with the changing seasons. Excellent potatoes are grown, and the tea-plant flourishes; coffee of fine quality has also been successfully grown in one of the private gardens. Till the completion of the new road above alluded to, carts can only reach Chikalda *viâ* Ghatong, a distance of 30 miles.

Chikáti.—Estate in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Number of houses, 11,913; population (1881) 40,684, of whom all but 36 are Hindus. One of the early sovereigns of Orissa is said to have granted this estate to a *sirdár*, who built a fort at Chikáti A.D. 881. The villages of the estate are irrigated from the Balinda river. Chief place, Chikáti.

Chikballapur.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State. Area, 379 square miles. Population (1881) 49,050, namely, males 24,362, and females 24,688. Hindus numbered 47,283; Muhammadans, 1565; and Christians, 202. The *táluk* contains the old forts of Nandidrúg and Kalavaradrúg. In 1883-84 it yielded a revenue of £11,406. Number of criminal courts, 2, with 6 *thánás* or police circles; strength of regular police, 57 men; besides 295 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Chikballapur.—Town in Kolár District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of Chikballapur *táluk*; 36 miles by road north-west of Kolár. Lat. 13° 26′ 10″ N., long. 77° 46′ 21″ E. Population (1881) 9133, namely, Hindus, 8306; Muhammadans, 781; and Christians, 46. The fort was erected about 1479 by Malla Baire Gauda, the youngest of the band of refugees of the Morasu Wokkal tribe, who founded the Pálegár dynasty throughout Mysore during the 14th century. His descendants extended their dominions, and maintained their independence against the rising power of the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. Haidar Alí, however, in 1761 captured both Chikballapur and the hill fort of Nandidrúg (Nundydroog), and sent the last of the Gaudas prisoner to Coimbatore.

Chik Devaráj Ságar.—Small canal, and scene of a fair in Mysore District, Mysore State.—*See* CHUNCHANKATTE.

Chikhli (*Chikoli*).—Petty Bhíl (Bheel) State of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated between the Tápti river and the Sátpura range. Estimated population (1881) 1444, of whom 737 are males and 707 females, all Bhíls. Their language is a mixture of Gujaráthí, Maráthí, and Hindustání. Near the Tápti, the soil is good; but the greater part of the State is overgrown with jungle, and is consequently very unhealthy. The revenue is about £500 from land and grazing rents, and £300 assigned by Government as a hereditary allowance in lieu of black-mail formerly levied by an ancestor of the present chief. This allowance was discontinued in the time of Rám Singh, as he was found incompetent to manage the police, for whose maintenance it was mainly intended. The Wasawa, or ruler, of Chikhli is one of the principal Mewási chiefs.

Chikhli.—*Táluk* of Buldáná District, Berár. Area, 1009 square miles; contains 1 town and 272 villages. Population (1881) 140,011, namely, 71,595 males and 68,416 females, or 138·76 persons per square mile. Area occupied by cultivators, 465,194 acres. Chief town,

Chikhli; population (1881) 4396. The total revenue of the *táluk*, in 1883–84, amounted to £34,858, of which £28,748 was derived from the land-tax. Number of civil courts, 2; criminal courts, 6; police stations (*thánás*), 5; strength of regular police, 223 men; village watchmen, 299.

Chikhli.—Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 167 square miles; number of villages, 62. Population (1881) 60,147; namely, 30,346 males and 29,801 females. Hindus number 33,201; Muhammadans, 5409; 'others,' 21,537. The Sub-division consists of two parts—raised plateaux with intervening belts of low-lying land. The elevated tracts are seamed by rocky watercourses; the soil, being poor and shallow, is cultivated only in patches, and yields little but grass and brushwood. The low-lying lands between these raised plateaux contain a very fertile soil, yielding superior crops of grain, sugar-cane, and fruit. Watered by the Ambiká, Káveri, Kharera, and Aurangá rivers, which flow through the Sub-division from east to west. Of 74,292 acres, the total area of cultivable land, 38,497 acres were in 1873–74 fallow or under grass, and 35,795 acres actually under cultivation. Cereal crops occupied 26,845 acres; pulses, 8413 acres; oil-seeds, 5692 acres; fibres, 236 acres; and miscellaneous, 1179 acres. These figures include lands bearing two crops in the year. The total assessment on Government land fixed at the time of the Settlement (1864) was £29,297, or an average of 6s. 4d. per acre, varying from 2s. 6⅛d. per acre for 'dry' crops to 14s. 11⅞d. for rice land, and 17s. 8½d. an acre for garden land. These rates remain in force till 1893–94. At the time of Settlement, the Sub-division contained 5994 distinct holdings, with an average area of nearly 16½ acres, each paying an average rental of £5, 7s. 2¾d.; the area per head of the agricultural population is a little over 3½ acres, paying an average rent of £1, 3s. 5½d. The Sub-division contained in 1884, 2 criminal courts and 1 police station (*thána*); strength of regular police force, 37 men, besides 523 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Chikhli.—Town in Surat District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Chikhli Sub-division; situated in lat. 20° 46′ N., long. 73° 9′ E. A small town of less than 5000 inhabitants, and of no importance except as the head-quarters of the Sub-division. Besides the usual Government revenue courts and police offices, Chikhli contains a post-office and dispensary.

Chikmagalúr.—*Táluk* in Kadur District, Mysore Native State. Area, 412 square miles. Population (1881) 87,712, namely, males 43,358, and females 25,881. Hindus number 82,990; Muhammadans, 4405; and Christians, 317. Land revenue (1874–75), exclusive of water-rates, £12,082, or 6s. 8d. per cultivated acre. The surface includes fertile valleys watered by perennial streams, and forest-clad mountains,

on the slopes of which coffee is grown. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court, and 9 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 90 men, besides 257 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Chikmagalúr (*'Town of the Younger Daughter'*).—Chief town of Kadur District, Mysore Native State; 130 miles west-north-west of Bangalore. Lat. 13° 18′ 15″ N., long. 75° 49′ 20″ E. Population (1871) 2027, including 65 Muhammadans and 82 Christians. No later details of population are available. The head-quarters of Kadur District were removed from Kadur town to Chikmagalúr in 1865, and the new station has since greatly increased in prosperity. The main *bázár* is a wide thoroughfare 2 miles long, and the weekly fair on Wednesdays is attended by 3000 people. The wants of the neighbouring coffee plantations have led to the settlement of several Musalmán traders. A wide belt of trees has been planted, to ward off the prevailing east winds. The country round is composed of the fertile black cotton-soil. Head-quarters of Chikmagalúr *táluk*.

Chiknáyakanhalli.—*Táluk* in Tumkúr District, Mysore Native State. Area, 355 square miles. Population (1881) 33,128, namely, males 16,136, and females 16,993. Hindus number 32,590; Muhammadans, 528; and Christians, 10. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water-rates, £7250, or 3s. 7d. per cultivated acre. Total revenue, £11,850. The *táluk* is intersected in the north by a chain of low, bare hills, to the east of which the country is hilly and jungly, while to the west and south it is fertile and well cultivated. Principal export trade, cocoa-nut and areca-nut. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts, with 8 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 71 men, besides 160 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Chiknáyakanhalli.—Town in Tumkúr District, Mysore Native State, and head-quarters of Chiknáyakanhalli *táluk*; 40 miles west-north-west from Tumkúr town. Lat. 13° 25′ 10″ N., long. 76° 39′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 3553, including 225 Muhammadans; municipal revenue (1874–75), £60; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. Founded by Chikka Náyaka, a chief of the Hágálvá house; plundered in 1791 by the Maráthá general, Parasu Rám Bháo, while on his way to join Lord Cornwallis before Seringapatam, and said to have yielded a booty of £50,000, which the leading men, under torture, were forced to bring out from the hiding-places where it had been concealed. Now a prosperous place, surrounded by groves of cocoa-nut and areca palms. Coarse cotton cloths, white and coloured, are manufactured. Many of the inhabitants are engaged in the carrying trade. There are 7 well-endowed temples.

Chikori.—Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 840 square miles; contains 212 villages, of which 158 are Government and 57 alienated. Population (1881) 245,614 persons,

or 124,349 males and 121,265 females. Hindus number 206,507; Muhammadans, 17,067; 'others,' 22,040. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 4 criminal courts, with 12 *thánás* or police stations; strength of regular police, 85 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 832.

Chikori.—Head-quarters town of the Chikori Sub-division in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency, lying 42 miles north-north-east of Belgáum, in lat. 16° 26′ N., and long. 74° 38′ E. Population (1881) 6184, according to the District authorities, but not returned in the list of towns above 5000 inhabitants given in the Census Report. Chikori is a considerable entrepôt of trade between the interior and the coast, with which it has ready communication by a road from Nipáni over the Phondá Ghát. Ordinary cotton goods are manufactured chiefly for local use. Sub-judge's court and post-office.

Chilambaram (*Chedambaram* or *Chittambaram*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division in the South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 254,425 acres (393 square miles), of which 192,830 acres are cultivated; population (1881) 265,250, namely, 248,224 Hindus, 11,557 Muhammadans (all Sunnís), 5467 Christians (chiefly Roman Catholics), and 2 'others;' distributed in 2 towns and 428 villages, and occupying 38,130 houses. Chief towns, CHILAMBARAM and PORTO NOVO. Land revenue demand in 1882–83, £66,332. In the same year, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 12 police stations (*thánás*), and a police force numbering 118 men.

Chilambaram (or, more correctly, *Chittambalam*, 'the atmosphere of wisdom').—Town and head-quarters of Chilambaram *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency; 7 miles from the coast and 25 miles south of Cuddalore. Lat. 11° 24′ 9″ N., long. 79° 44′ 7″ E. Houses, 4365. Population (1881) 19,837, namely, 18,583 Hindus, 1154 Muhammadans, and 100 Christians. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it contains subordinate revenue, judicial, and police establishments; post-office, travellers' bungalow, etc. The weaving of silk and cotton cloth occupies 27 per cent. of the total adult population. In December, a great fair is held, attracting from 50,000 to 60,000 pilgrims and traders. Municipal revenue (1881–82) £1324; incidence of taxation, about 2s. per head of the rateable population. During the wars of the Karnatic, Chilambaram was considered a point of considerable strategical importance. In 1749, the ill-fated expedition under Captain Cope, against Devikotá, made a stand here in its retreat; and here, in the following year, the armies of Murári Ráo and Muzaffar Jang first met. In 1753, the British garrison was compelled to evacuate Chilambaram by the French, and the muster of the French and Maráthá forces for the campaign of the following year was held at this town. An attempt by the British to take the place in 1759 failed. In 1760, the French

surrendered it to Haidar Alí, who strengthened the fortifications and garrisoned the town; and when Sir Eyre Coote attacked Chilambaram in 1781, he was driven off with loss.

But it is for its temples, held in the highest reverence throughout Southern India and Ceylon, that Chilambaram is chiefly celebrated. The principal of these is the Sabhanaiken Kovil or Kanak Sabhá (golden shrine), sacred to Siva and his wife Párvatí. Tradition asserts that the earliest portions of this splendid structure were built by Hiranya Varna Chakrasti, 'the golden-coloured king,' who was here cured of leprosy; and as this name occurs in the *Chronicles of Kashmír* as that of a king who conquered Ceylon, some writers are of opinion that this temple is really the work of a Kashmír prince of the 5th century. He is said to have brought 3000 Bráhmans with him from the north; and to this day the temple belongs to some 250 families of a peculiar sect of Bráhmans called Dikshatars.

The management of the pagoda may be described as a domestic hierarchy. All the male married members of the Dikshatar caste or sect, no matter of what age, have equal shares in its control, and a single dissentient voice prevents the execution of any project. As soon as a boy is married, generally as soon after the age of five as possible, he enters into all the privileges of a managing director. They only marry among themselves, never with any other class of Bráhmans, and they say that there are no members of their sect in any other part of anywhere exceeding 6 feet. The bed of the lake is a very few feet below the high-water level of the sea, although in some parts it is slightly below low-water mark. The distant inner portion of the lake keeps about 2 feet higher than the exterior ocean at all stages of the tide. The narrow tidal stream, which rushes through the neck connecting the lake with the sea, suffices to keep the water distinctly salt during the dry months from December to June. But once the rains have set in, and the rivers come pouring down upon its northern extremity, the sea-water is gradually driven out, and the Chilká passes through various stages of brackishness until it becomes a fresh-water lake. This changeable inland sea forms one of a series of lacustrine formations down the western shores of the Bay of Bengal, the result of a perpetual war going on between the rivers and the sea—the former struggling to find vent for their water and silt, the latter repelling them with its sand-laden currents. The Chilká may be regarded as a gulf of the original Bay of Bengal. On the south, a bold, barren spur of hills runs down to the coast; on the north, the land-making rivers have pushed out their rounded mouths and flat deltas into the ocean. Nor has the sea been idle; but meeting and overmastering the languid river-discharge that enters the Chilká, it has joined the two promontories with a bar of sand, and thus formed a lake. At this moment the

surround it; and at each of the four corners stands a solid *gopuram* or pyramid 122 feet in height, faced with granite blocks 40 feet in length and 5 feet thick, covered with copper. The principal court, called 'the hall of a thousand pillars' (though really containing only 936), presents a magnificent appearance. In the centre is the shrine of Párvatí, a most beautiful building, containing a golden canopy, with superb fringes of bullion; and also the sanctuary, a copper-roofed enclosure, remarkable for its ugliness. Opposite to it stands the Miratha Sabhá,

this also rapidly began to silt up, it remained, as late as 1837, more than three times its present breadth. The villagers allege that it still grows narrower year by year; and the difficulty in maintaining an outlet from the Chilká forms one of the chief obstacles to utilizing the lake as an escapement for the floods that desolate the delta. Engineers report that although it would be easy and cheap to cut a channel, it would be very costly and difficult to keep it open; and that each successive mouth would speedily choke up and share the fate of its predecessors.

The scenery of the Chilká is very varied, and in parts exceedingly picturesque. In the south and west, hill ranges bound its shores; and in this part it is dotted with a number of small rocky islands. Proceeding northwards, the lake expands into a majestic sheet of water. Half-way across is Nalbana, literally 'the reed forest,' an island about 5 miles in circumference, scarcely anywhere rising more than a few inches above water-level. This island is altogether uninhabited, but is regularly visited by parties of thatchers from the mainland, who cut the reeds and high grasses with which it is completely covered. On the eastern side of the lake lie the islands of Párikúd, with new silt formations behind, and now partially joined to the narrow ridge of land which separates the Chilká from the sea. At some places they emerge almost imperceptibly from the water; at others, they spread out into well-raised rice-fields. Their northern extremity slopes gracefully down to the lake like an English park, dotted with fine trees, and backed by noble masses of foliage. Water-fowl of all kinds are very abundant in every part of the lake. Salt-making is largely carried on in PARÍKUD. Beyond the northern end of Párikúd, the lake gradually shallows until it becomes solid ground. At this point, the Purí rivers empty themselves into the lake, and the process of land-making is going on steadily. The northern shores of the Chilká comprise the *parganás* of Sirái and Chaubískud, and it is these tracts which have to bear the greatest suffering in times of general inundation in Purí. Until Ganjám was abandoned, on account of its unhealthiness, the Chilká lake was during the hot months a frequent resort of Europeans from the Madras Presidency. At the southern extremity of the lake stands the populous and important village of RAMBHA, having an extensive trade in grain with Orissa, for which it gives salt in exchange. A steam launch plies between Rambhá and

About a quarter of a mile south of the town are some Buddhist excavations.

kulya river, is 7 miles in length, and navigable throughout the year. Large quantities of grain and salt are carried to and fro along it.

Chilmárí.—Village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Brahmaputra river. Lat. 25° 27′ 20″ N., long. 89° 48′ 50″ E. Considerable export trade in rice, paddy, and jute.

Chimúr.—*Parganá* in the north-west of Chándá District, Central Provinces, comprising 158 villages; area, 416 square miles. Hill and jungle cover the south and east. The soil is chiefly red, yellow, or sandy, with considerable tracts of black loam. Principal products—rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, wheat, cotton, gram, *joár*. Chief towns—Chimúr, noted for its fine cotton cloth; Nerí, and Bhisí. At Jámbul-ghátа, a large weekly market is held.

Chimúr.—Town in Warorá *tahsíl* of Chándá District, situated in lat. 20° 31′ N., long. 79° 25′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 4846, namely, Hindus, 4255; Satnámís, 7; Muhammadans, 459; Jains, 3; Christians, 3; tribes professing aboriginal religions, 119. Police station and vernacular school. Seat of an honorary magistrate. One of the principal annual fairs in the District is held here. Manufacture of fine cotton cloths.

Chintamáni.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State.—*See* SRINI-

Chinamandem (*Chinnamandiem*).—Town in Rayáchati *táluk*, Cuddapah (*Kadapa*) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 56′ N., long. 78° 44′ E. Population (1881) 4042, namely, 3353 Hindus and 689 Muhammadans; number of houses, 923.

Chinchimulla.—Formerly a separate estate, but in 1814 added to BANAGANAPALLI, Madras Presidency.

Chinchli.—Petty State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Chinchni.—Town in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 4165. Situated on the north bank of the Chinchni Tárápur creek, about 6 miles west of the Vangáon station of the Baroda and Central India Railway, and 8 miles south of Dáhnánu. Vernacular school and dispensary.

Chingleput.—District, *táluk*, and town in Madras Presidency.—*See* CHENGALPUT.

dency. Area, 41 square miles, comprising a single township or parish (*amsam*). Population (1881) 4280, namely, 2380 males and 1900 females; number of occupied houses, 731.

Chirang Dwár.—One of the Dwárs or sub-montane tracts conquered from Bhután in 1869, and now forming part of the Eastern Dwárs, in Goálpárá District, Assam. Area, 495 square miles; population (1881) 1216. Almost the entire area is waste, the density of population being

surround it ; and at each of the four corners stands a solid *gopuram* or pyramid 122 feet in height, faced with granite blocks 40 feet in length

Chiniot.—*Tahsíl* of Jhang District, Punjab ; lying for the most part in the Rechna Doáb, but also extending a little beyond the Chenáb, between lat. 31° 30′ 30″ and 31° 50′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 35′ and 73° 14′ E., into the country immediately above its junction with the Jehlam (Jhelum). Area, 2149 square miles. Population (1881) 128,241, namely, males 68,863, and females 59,378. Muhammadans number 112,173 ; Hindus, 15,369 ; Sikhs, 693 ; and 'others,' 6. Revenue (1883), £13,921. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 5 ; strength of regular police, 100 men ; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 183.

Chiniot.—Town in Jhang District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Chiniot *tahsíl*, situated 2 miles south of the present bed of the Chenáb, on the road from Jhang to Wazírábád. Lat. 31° 43′ 32″ N., long. 73° 0′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 10,731, namely, 3475 Hindus, 7143 Muhammadans, and 113 Sikhs ; number of occupied houses, 1088. Founded prior to the Musalmán conquest of Upper India. The town suffered much from the Duráni inroads during the last half of the 18th century, and also during the troubles of 1848, being the in circumference, scarcely anywhere rising more than a few inches above factions. Chiniot now bears a prosperous aspect, and is a thriving town, most of the houses being of excellent brickwork, lofty and commodious, especially those of the Khoja traders, who have large business dealings with Amritsar, Calcutta, Bombay, and Karáchi. Handsome mosque built by Nawáb Sadullá Khán Tahím, governor of the town in the reign of Sháh Jahán ; also a shrine dedicated to Sháh Barhán, a Muhammadan saint revered by Hindus and Muhammadans alike. ... wood-carving and masonry, and many of its ... in building the Táj Mahál at ... at Amritsar was also ... to the building ... of cotton, wool, ...

... revenue ... head of the rate... Chilambaram was considered ... ance. In 1749, the ill-fated expedition ... Devikotá, made a stand here in its retreat ; ... year, the armies of Murári Ráo and Muzaffar Jang ... was compelled to evacuate Chilam... and Maráthá force ... An attempt ... the French

About a quarter of a mile south of the town are some Buddhist excavations.

Chípurupalle.—*Táluk* of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 535 square miles. Houses, 30,059, grouped into 268 villages, all *zamíndárí*. Population (1881) 138,896, almost all Hindus, or 69,107 males and 69,600 females

tinguish between the two towns, which contained a joint population in that year of 31,177. See HUGLI town. The Dutch established themselves at Chinsurah in the 17th century, and held the place till 1825, when it was ceded by the Netherlands Government to Great Britain. The town is neatly laid out. It was formerly used as an invalid depôt for troops, and for regiments arriving from or proceeding to England; but within the last few years it has been abandoned as a military station. It contains a public library and printing-press.

Chintadrapet.—A quarter of MADRAS TOWN.

Chintalnár.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Bastar State, attached to Chándá District, Central Provinces. Area, 480 square miles. Population (1881) 4374, namely, 2184 males and 2190 females. Number of villages, 48; occupied houses, 752. The forests supply teak, which is exported by the Chintálnalá, a small stream flowing into the Tálper river. The chief resides at Jigargunda.

Chintámáni.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State.—*See* SRINIVASPUR.

Chintamani-pet.—Town in Kolár District, Mysore State; 25 miles north-north-west of Kolár. Lat. 13° 24′ 20″ N., long. 78° 5′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 5119, namely, Hindus, 4635; and Muhammadans, 484. Municipal revenue (1874–75), £18; rate of taxation, 1d. per head. Named after its Maráthá founder, Chintamani Ráo, and a seat of the Kumati or banking class. Considerable trade, chiefly in grain, gold, silver, and precious stones. The neighbourhood is famous for pomegranates. Until 1873, the town was the head-quarters of the Ambáji-durgá *táluk*.

Chirála.—Town in Bápatla *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 58′ 20″ N., long. 80° 4′ 10″ E. Houses, 1856. Population (1881) 9061, namely, 8652 Hindus and 409 Muhammadans. Formerly in Nellore District. Noted for its cotton manufactures. Dispensary.

Chiramkod.—Division or *nád* of the Nilgiri District, Madras Presidency. Area, 41 square miles, comprising a single township or parish (*amsam*). Population (1881) 4280, namely, 2380 males and 1900 females; number of occupied houses, 731.

Chirang Dwár.—One of the Dwárs or sub-montane tracts conquered from Bhután in 1869, and now forming part of the Eastern Dwárs, in Goálpárá District, Assam. Area, 495 square miles; population (1881) 1216. Almost the entire area is waste, the density of population being

surround it; and at each of the four corners stands a solid *gopuram* or
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Chiplún.—Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 670 square miles; contains 1 town and 211 villages. Population (1881) 168,921, namely, 80,048 males and 88,873 females. Hindus number 157,535; Muhammadans, 11,323; 'others,' 63. The Sub-division stretches from the coast inland to the watershed of the Sahyádrí range, and is throughout more or less hilly and rugged. The seaboard, with the exception of an open sandy roadstead, some five miles long, extending on each side of the village of Guhágar, is broken and irregular. Close to the shore rise a series of high laterite plateaux, which stretch some ten miles inland, where they are succeeded by a belt of lower undulating land; but on meeting the spurs and ravines thrown out by the great mountain chain of the Sahyádri range, the country becomes very rugged and precipitous. The only rivers of importance are the Váshishti on the north, and the Shástri on the south of the Sub-division, both of which are tidal for a distance of about 25 miles from their mouths, and are navigable within these limits by moderate-sized boats. The total area under cultivation in 1877-78, the latest year for which details are available, was 296,576 acres. Grain crops occupied 280,271 acres; pulses, 12,673 acres; oil-seeds, 2000 acres; fibres, 523 acres; miscellaneous crops, 1107 acres. Up to 1880, the Sub-division had not been fully surveyed. It contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, with 6 police stations (*thánás*); strength of police force, 96 men.

Chiplún.—Chief town of Chiplún Sub-division, in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 31′ 25″ N., long. 73° 33′ 50″ E. Situated 108 miles south-east of Bombay, and about 25 miles from the coast,

Chiniot man, and the head mason now attached to the building is another. Manufacture of coarse cloth. Exports of cotton, wool, *ghí*, bones, horns and hides. Besides the sub-divisional courts and offices, the town contains a good charitable dispensary, school-house, rest-house, etc., and a beautiful garden, well stocked with fruit-trees. The country

and it is these tracts which have to bear the greatest suffering in times of general inundation in Purí. Until Ganjám was abandoned, on account of its unhealthiness, the Chilká lake was during the hot months a frequent resort of Europeans from the Madras Presidency. At the southern extremity of the lake stands the populous and important village of RAMBHA, having an extensive trade in grain with Orissa, for which it gives salt in exchange. A steam launch plies between Rambhá and

About a quarter of a mile south of the town are some Buddhist excavations.

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Chípurupalle.—Estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; consisting of one village, assessed at £381 per annum. Formerly part of the Pánchadárla estate; but when that *hunda* was transferred to the Vizianágram domains, within the ancient territorial limits of which it was found to lie, the remainder was named the Chípurupalle estate, after the most central village in it. The Rájá of Vizianágram bought the estate, which then contained 24 villages, for an annual payment of £3623. Fifteen of the 24 villages have since lapsed to Government on account of arrears of revenue, and 8 others have been apportioned among as many different proprietors. The present estate, therefore, consists of one village only.

Chirakkal.—*Táluk* in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Area, 648 square miles, containing 1 town and 44 villages (*amsams*). Houses, 44,250. Population (1881) 272,669, namely, 132,715 males and 139,954 females. Chief town CANNANORE. Land revenue demand (1882–83), £45,344. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts, but in civil matters is subject to the jurisdiction of the *munsif's* court at Tellicherry.

Chirakkal.—Township (*amsam*, or 'parish') in the Chirakkal *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency; situated 3 miles north of Cannanore, in lat. 11° 54′ N., and long. 75° 29′ E. Houses, 1257. Population (1881) 8658, namely, 5818 Hindus, 2829 Muhammadans, and 11 Christians. Formerly head-quarters of the *táluk*, and still containing the Malabár central jail. It was by grant from the Chirakkal or Kolattiri Rájá, whose descendant still lives in the neighbourhood, that the British first obtained a permanent footing at Tellicherri.

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less than 3 persons per square mile. A tract of 225·60 square miles, or nearly one-half of the whole, has been set apart as forest reserves, and divided into 13 valuable *sál* forests. The settlement of the cultivated fields, which cover an aggregate of only 1329 acres, is effected by Government on the Assam system by annual engagements directly with the cultivators.

Chiráwa.—Town in the Shaikhawati division of Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5489, namely, Hindus, 3117; Muhammadans, 2123; and unspecified, 19.

Chirgáon.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 25° 35′ N., and long. 78° 52′ E., on the road to Cawnpur, 18 miles north-east of Jhánsi, and 14 miles south-west of Moth. Population (1881) 3748, namely, Hindus, 3452; Muhammadans, 257; and 'others,' 39. A small municipal revenue, in the shape of a house-tax, is raised for police and conservancy purposes under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Chirgáon, with 25 other villages, was formerly the property of a Bundela Thákur, a descendant of Bír Singh Deo of Orchha, who held a *sanad* from the British Government. In 1841, Ráo Bakht Singh, the ruling chief, was expelled for disloyalty; his fort was razed to the ground, and his whole estate confiscated. He was afterwards killed at Panwári. His surviving son, Ráo Raghunáth Singh, was granted a pension of £300 a year, for services rendered during the Mutiny; and a pension of £150 has been continued to his son, Dalíp Singh, the present (1883) chief.

Chirkhári.—State and town in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* CHARKHARI.

Chitaldrúg (*Chitaldroog*).—District of the Nagar Division, Mysore Native State. Including the extreme limits of two long narrow projections into the Madras District of Bellary, it is situated between 13° 35′ and 15° 2′ N. lat., and between 75° 43′ and 77° 30′ E. long. Area, 4871 square miles. Population (1881) 376,310. On the north and north-east, Chitaldrúg is bounded by the District of Bellary, in the Madras Presidency; on the south and south-east by Túmkúr District (Mysore); on the west by Kadúr and Shimoga Districts (Mysore); and on the north-west it is separated by the Tungabhadra river from the Bombay District of Dhárwár. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of CHITALDRUG.

Physical Aspects.—The District is distinguished in Mysore for its low rainfall, and the arid, stony character of the soil. It consists for the most part of the valley of the Vedavatí or Hagari river, a tributary of the Tungabhadra, running from south-west to north-east; and it is traversed crosswise by a belt of intermittent parallel chains of low hills. The highest summits of these hills are from 2800 to 3800 feet above sea-level. The rest of the District is an open plain, entirely

destitute of picturesque features, with an average elevation of about 2000 feet. The Vedavatí river occupies a wide sandy bed, which is almost dry of water during the hot months, except where wells are sunk for irrigation. The Tungabhadra river forms the north-western boundary for a few miles, and the Northern Pinákini enters the District on the extreme east for an equally short distance. In no part of Chitaldrúg are trees numerous; and the present sterile condition of the country is attributed to the reckless destruction of the former forests. Rich grass for pasturage abounds in certain tracts, and the soil is productive wherever it can be artificially watered. The well-known 'black cotton-soil,' interspersed with sandy patches, prevails in the north and west; in the south, the earth is largely impregnated with salt, which is favourable to the production of the cocoa-nut; and towards the east, the surface soil is light and sandy, and abounds in springs, which form so prominent a feature in the agriculture of the neighbouring Districts of Túmkúr and Bellary. The central range of hills presents a succession of different formations. In the south, the hills are mainly composed of a ferruginous clayey slate, topped with magnetic ironstone; about Chitaldrúg is found the prevailing syenite of Mysore, with felspar and mica; while towards the north, the lower ridges consist of a compound in which chlorite, oxide of iron, and hornblende appear. Among minerals may be mentioned iron-ore in various forms, asbestos, potstone, slate, actinolite, and carbonate of soda. The wild animals include the tiger, panther, bear, hyæna, and wild hog. As elsewhere in Mysore, trees have been planted out in avenues along the public roads, and the cultivators are encouraged to grow groves of their own; but the trees thus planted are kept alive with much difficulty, and there is not sufficient timber in the District to serve for the local demands of housebuilding.

History.—The history of Chitaldrúg is chiefly associated with the names of the *palegárs* or petty chieftains, who rose to independence during the 17th century. The most ancient site in the District is the village of Nirgunda, which is proved by inscriptions of the 5th century A.D. to have been the capital of a Jain principality, tributary to the Ganga Empire. It is believed that descendants of the Ganga line continued to govern the country during the predominance of the Chalukya and Ballála dynasties. When the latter kingdom was overthrown by the Muhammadans in the 14th century, the Hindu sovereigns of Vijayanagar became paramount over all Southern India; but the remoteness of their authority allowed numerous feudatories to assert semi-independence. Foremost amongst these were the *palegárs* of Chitaldrúg, Nidugal, and Náyakanhatti. The Chitaldrúg family belong to the Bedar, or Boya, caste, who subsist by hunting and tending cattle. The Bedar caste corresponds to the Kirátas of Sanskrit

writers. The founder of the family obtained possession of the hill fort of Chitaldrúg in about the year 1508; and, by the help of his warlike tribesmen, his descendants gradually extended their power over the greater part of the present District. During the wars which followed from the disputes between the Muhammadans of Bijápur, the Mughals, and the Maráthás, the Chitaldrúg *palegár* served as a valuable auxiliary on the one side or the other; but, like the rest of the local chieftains, he fell before the conquering armies of Haidar Alí. In 1779, the fort of Chitaldrúg, which had been besieged by Haidar Alí on more than one occasion, was surrendered to him by treachery; he sent the ruling family prisoners to Seringapatam, transported the inhabitants in a body to people his capital, and enlisted the young boys of the Bedar caste in his own battalions. The *palegár* of Nidugal was conquered by Haidar Alí at about the same time, though the family survived to be finally extirpated by Tipú in 1792. They are said to have been descended from a Rájput immigrant, to whom the country was granted by the Vijayanagar sovereign in the 16th century. The hill fort of Nidugal became their residence after they had been driven from the plains by the Musalmán Nawáb of Síra. The Náyakanhatti family were chiefs of smaller note, whose territory had been absorbed by the Chitaldrúg *palegár* before the days of Haidar Alí. On the death of Tipú, in 1799, Chitaldrúg was included in the dominions of the resuscitated Hindu Rájá of Mysore. The west and south suffered during the disturbances of 1830, which led to the intervention of the Indian Government in 1831; and the entire State remained under direct British administration until 1881. In March 1881, Mysore State was restored to native rule, but the administration after the British fashion by Divisions and Districts has not been changed in any important feature.

Population.—A *khána-sumári*, or house enumeration of the people, in 1853–54, returned a total of 289,495 persons. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 531,360, showing an increase of more than 83 per cent. in the interval of eighteen years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The Census of 1881, however, discloses a great falling off in population. The number returned in 1881 is 376,310, or a decrease since 1871 of 155,050. This decrease is due to the severe famine which afflicted Southern India in 1876–78. The area of Chitaldrúg, 4871 square miles, gives an average of 77 persons per square mile, the lowest average in Mysore State. The most densely-populated *táluk* in the District is Dávangere. Classified according to sex, the population is composed of 190,017 males and 186,293 females; proportion of males, 50 per cent. The occupation tables return 89,367 male adults as connected with agriculture, and 18,305 as composing the manufacturing and artisan classes. The

religious division of the people shows the following totals—Hindus, 362,502, or 97 per cent.; Muhammadans, 13,665, or 3 per cent.; Christians, 143. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans number 6905; the claimants to the rank of Kshatriya or Rájput, 237; the Komatis, 3827; and the Jains, 636. Of inferior castes, one of the most numerous is the Bedar (62,214), hunters, whose chief was the former *palegár* of Chitaldrúg. The Lingáyats, a trading class who have always been influential in this part of the country, and have supplied several families of petty *palegárs*, number in Chitaldrúg District 88,094; Vakkaligars, agriculturists, 9873; Kunchigars, 21,052. Out-castes are returned at 40,549, and wandering tribes at 6442. The chief feature in this ethnical classification is the small proportion of the pure Hindu castes, as compared with the rest of Mysore State. The Muhammadans, who muster strongest in the *táluk* of Dávangere, are almost all of the Sunní sect. Out of the total of 143 Christians, 5 are Europeans and 28 Eurasians, leaving 110 for the native converts. According to another principle of classification, there are 29 Protestants and 114 Roman Catholics.

The District contains 1420 towns and villages, with 70,751 occupied and 15,471 unoccupied houses. As compared with the area and the population, these figures give the following averages:—Villages per square mile, ·29; houses per square mile, 17·7; persons per village, 265; persons per house, 5·32. The only place in the District containing more than 5000 inhabitants is DAVANGERE (6362), the chief centre of trade and manufacture, and the residence of many wealthy Lingáyats. Other considerable centres are:—HARIHAR, where a native regiment used formerly to be stationed, on the Tungabhadra river, here crossed by a masonry bridge, erected at a cost of £35,000; CHITALDRUG, the civil head-quarters of the District, but abandoned as a military cantonment on account of its unhealthiness; and TURVANUR. On the Jogimath, one of the highest hills immediately south of Chitaldrúg town, a teak plantation and sanitarium have been formed.

Agriculture.—The greater part of the food-supply is furnished by 'dry crops,' among which the following are the most important:—*Ragi* (Cynosurus corocanus); *joár* (Holcus sorghum) and *navane* (Panicum italicum), two varieties of millet; and the pulses, *kadali* (Cicer arietinum), *togari* (Cajanus indicus), and *hurali* (Dolichos uniflorus). Rice is only grown in the river valleys. Cotton is extensively raised in certain tracts, and in the south there are large groves of cocoa-nut palms. In the east, the soil is so sterile, and the rainfall so small, that even *ragi* requires to be regularly irrigated from wells. There are, altogether, 1795 tanks in the District, a comparatively small number for a District in Mysore. Irrigation is the great want of Chitaldrúg; without water

every crop is precarious. Since the beginning of the century, a project has been under consideration for embanking the Vedavatí river, where it breaks through the central range of the District. The cost is estimated at £150,000; and 50,000 acres in the fertile but unwatered plain of Hiriyúr would thus be rendered productive. The following irrigation works have been recently constructed—Dodderi tank feeder, at a cost of £3118, completed in 1881; and the Yálluk tank feeder, completed in 1878 at a cost of £1701. Out of the total area of 4871 square miles, 1256 are returned as under cultivation, 1761 as cultivable, and 1854 as uncultivable. The area under rice is 19,017 acres; wheat, 7573; other food-grains, 612,558; oil-seeds, 13,398; cotton, 16,365; vegetables, 1579; cocoa-nut palms, 8270 acres; areca-nut palms, 4034; sugar-cane, 2058 acres. The returns of agricultural stock show 5841 carts and 54,079 ploughs. But the chief wealth of Chitaldrúg District consists in its flocks and herds. The common cattle of the villagers are of a small size; but on the wide pasture-grounds belonging to the *amrit mahál*, or department for the improvement of cattle breeds, graze some of the largest and finest cattle in Southern India. The best cows and buffaloes are bred in the neighbourhood of Chitaldrúg town. The most valuable breeds of sheep, on the other hand, are to be found in the north-west of the District. The total number of cows and bullocks is returned at 213,090; of buffaloes, at 54,548; of sheep and goats, at 284,600.

Manufactures, etc.—The staple industries depend upon the local productions of cotton, wool, and iron. The weaving of coarse cotton cloth is carried on in all parts of the District, and several villages are known for the special fineness or peculiar pattern of their work. *Kamblis*, or woollen blankets, are also made everywhere, both white and black, as well as checked. The size is generally 18 feet long by 6 feet wide, and the price varies from 32s. to £4. Some are occasionally produced of so delicate a texture that it is said they can be rolled up into a hollow bamboo, and £30 is asked for such a fancy article. The weaving of silk is confined to a few localities. Iron-ore is largely smelted in the central hill ranges; the articles produced are agricultural implements and weapons of steel. The manufacture of glass ornaments, such as bangles, forms a speciality of the village of Mattod, in the Harihar *táluk*, and in Malebenúr in the Dávangere *táluk*. Coarse paper is made from old sacking in the Dodderi *táluk;* but both the glass and paper industries have fallen much off in recent years.

The principal centre of trade is the thriving town of Dávangere, in the north-west of the District, where a large through traffic is conducted. The areca-nut and pepper of the Malnád or hill country of West Mysore are here exchanged for the piece-goods, hardware, salt, etc., imported from Madras, and the *kamblis* manufactured in the neigh-

bourhood. The merchants mostly belong to the Lingáyat sect. The most frequented religious fair is held at the sacred village of Náyakanhatti, in the Dodderi *táluk*, where 15,000 persons assemble annually. Other religious festivals are held at the following places:—Kotegudda, Kalledevarpura, Hiriyur, Maildevarapura, Nagalmadíke, Murgi, and Gurúsiddapura. Weekly fairs take place at Dávangere, Náyakanhatti, Harihar, Budihal, and Huliyar. There are no railroads in the District. The imperial roads have a total length of 191 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £3403; of District roads, there are 224 miles, which cost annually £1616. First-class *dák* bungalows for the use of travellers are established at Bommankere, Chitaldrúg, Harihar, and Hiriyur.

Administration.—In 1881–82, the total revenue of Chitaldrúg District, excluding forests, education, and public works, amounted to £79,767. The chief items were—land revenue, £58,402; excise, £6171; *mohtarfa* or assessed taxes, £4124. The District is divided into 8 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 51 *koblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1881–82, the total number of estates on the register was 77,811, owned by 66,349 proprietors or coparceners. During 1874, the average daily population of the District jail amounted to 27·82, and of the *táluk* lock-ups to 11·68; total, 39·50 (of whom 3·30 were women), showing 1 person in jail to every 13,855 of the population. In 1880, the District police force numbered 48 officers and 540 constables; total, 588 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £3392. These figures show one policeman to every 7 square miles of area, or to every 639 persons of the population; the cost being 2¼d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 296, attended by 5847 pupils. In addition, there were 221 unaided schools, with 2831 pupils. In 1881, the Census Report returned 7134 boys and 167 girls as under instruction; besides 14,843 males and 173 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Chitaldrúg is characterized by a drier heat than the rest of Mysore. The rainfall is considerably less, and there are few forests or inequalities of surface to moderate the radiation from the bare plain. In the western part, a cool breeze from the west sometimes blows at night in the hot season. The mean average temperature during the year is about 78½° F., the hottest month being April. The average rainfall at Chitaldrúg town, calculated on the twelve years ending 1881, amounts to only 25·32 inches. Nearly one-half of this falls in the single month of October, at the season of the breaking of the north-east monsoon. Certain parts of the District, including the Hiriyur and Dodderi *táluks*, receive less than 10 inches in the year; and if this supply fails, severe distress is inevitably occasioned. The vital statistics of the District are far from trustworthy; but it may

be mentioned that out of the total of 6134 deaths reported in 1881, 3981 were assigned to fevers, 346 to bowel complaints, 41 to small-pox, and 28 to snake-bite and wild beasts. As throughout the greater part of Mysore, outbreaks of cholera are rare. In 1880, the hospital and dispensary at Chitaldrúg town afforded aid to 8362 persons. [For further information regarding Chitaldrúg District, see the *Gazetteer of Mysore and Coorg*, by L. Rice, Esq., vol. ii. pp. 450–504 (Bangalore, 1876); also the *Census Report of Mysore*, 1881; and the *Administration Reports* for 1880 to 1883.]

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Chitaldrúg ('*Spotted castle*,' or '*Umbrella rock*').—Chief town of the District of Chitaldrúg, Mysore State; 126 miles north-west of Bangalore. Lat. 14° 14′ N., long. 76° 26′ E. Population (1881) 4271. The modern town stands at the north-east base of a cluster of hills, covered with extensive fortifications. Many inscriptions have been found of the Chalukya, Ballála, and Vijayanagar dynasties. Local history commences with the family of the Chitaldrúg *palegárs*, who trace back to the 15th century. Their hereditary title was Náyak, and they claimed descent from the Bedar or Boya caste of hunters and mountaineers. They gradually extended their power on all sides until they came into collision with Haidar Alí, who captured Chitaldrúg in 1779, sent the last of the Náyaks prisoner to Seringapatam, and dispersed the Bedar population. The remains of the mud fort and palace of the *palegárs* are still to be seen. Haidar Alí erected a formidable stone fortress, within which his son Tipú built a palace, now used as a court-house. In the city were also constructed immense granaries and pits, for storing oil and *ghí*. Inside the fortifications are 14 temples, of which the principal, dedicated to Huchangi-amma, has two storeys. Water is conducted to all the streets from the Timmalnayakan tank. The cantonments have been abandoned as a station for British troops, on account of their unhealthiness. The weavers of Chitaldrúg were once celebrated, but only country blankets and coarse cotton cloth are now made. In the neighbourhood of the town are several *maths* or Hindu monasteries. The largest is the Murgi *math*, 3 miles to the

north-west, the residence of the chief *guru* or spiritual leader of the Sivabhakts or Sivachárs.

Chitalmárí.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Madhumatí. The site of an annual fair held at the end of March, lasting six days, and attended by about [illegible] people daily ... ascent is 1595 yards, and the slope, which is nearly uniform throughout, is about 1 in 15; the whole roadway is roughly paved. The second gate, known as the Lakola, is at the extreme northern point of the fort, and the ascent to it is by a small rugged pathway, little used. On the eastern face is the third entrance, known as the Súraj Pol; the ascent to it is about 750 yards in length, the latter half being paved. There is an abundant supply of water inside the fort from tanks, 32 in number; and there is also a perennial spring from the lower part of the precipice over the city, which appears to be excellent drinking water. Though the soil inside the walls is very rocky, a great portion of the northern half produces annual crops of *joár*. In the centre are a few wheat-fields irrigated from the tanks, but to the south it is quite uncultivated. Little of pasturage is to be found inside the walls. As a fortress the place possesses great advantages; the hill itself, averaging about 450 feet above the surrounding country, pre-

Chítá Rewá.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in Chhindwárá District, and after a course of over 50 miles, falling into the Shakar, about a mile above the railway bridge at Pátlon in Narsinghpur District. The coal, worked by the Narbadá (Nerbudda) Mining Company, appears in the gorge through which this river leaves the Sátpura table-land.

Chitarkot.—Hill and place of pilgrimage in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; distant 71 miles from Allahábád, and 42 miles from Bánda. The Páisuni river flows beneath its base, which has a circumference of some 3 miles. A terrace runs round the hill-side, upon which pilgrims perform the ceremony of circumambulation. In former times, the hill was more frequented as a place of pilgrimage than any other in Bundelkhand or Baghelkhand. It is said to have attained its great sanctity in the *Treta-yug*, or the third of the Hindu ages of the world, when it was visited by Ráma during his wanderings in the jungles. Thirty-three shrines, dedicated to various deities, crown the surrounding hills or fringe the banks of the Páisuni. The temple attendants hold the revenues of 39 villages within British territory, besides several others in the adjoining Native States. Two large fairs take place annually, on the occasion of the *Rám-námí* and *Diwáli* festivals, which formerly attracted from 30,000 to 45,000 visitors, but not more than 15,000 now attend. The alleged causes of the falling off are that Rájás do not attend the festivals in such number, or so frequently, as heretofore; and also that the Peshwá's family at

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(1881) 6931, namely, Hindus, 5736; and Muhammadans, 1195. The town is situated on the Nímach and Nasírábád road, 30 miles from the former and 114 from the latter, and a station of the Holkar and Sindhia-Nímach State Railway. It lies immediately at the foot of the western slope of the hill, on which is situated the celebrated fort called Chitorgarh. The town is nearly rectangular in form, and is defended by a wall connected with the fort. The Gameri, an affluent of the Berach, flows to the west, at a distance of 680 yards, and is spanned by a very solid old masonry bridge of 9 arches, in good order, but without parapets. The fort, Chitorgarh, stands on a long narrow hill, lying almost exactly north and south. Its area is 693 acres; extreme length from wall to wall 5735 yards, and greatest width 836 yards; total length of the ramparts 12,113 yards. The nature of the hill itself is solid rock, gradually sloping upwards from the plain, and more or less precipitous throughout the whole extent at the top; the stratification is nearly horizontal; but the dip is from the east and west towards the centre, and this form has been taken advantage of in forming tanks, of which there are 5 large ones in the southern half of the fort. At the extreme south end is a small round hill known as Chitoria, connected with the main hill by a saddle-back; the distance between the edge of this hill and the southern bastion is 150 yards, but the fort wall is 150 feet above it. The general level of the country is little more than 1300 feet above the sea. The height of the extreme northern end of the fort-wall is 1761 feet, and of the extreme southern point 1819 feet. Of the three approaches to the

three main gates of the fort, the principal, from the city on the west, ascends the hill gradually in a northern direction for about 1080 yards, passing under two gateways; the road then zig-zags for some 500 yards more, passing under three more gateways, before it arrives at the main gate of the fortress, known as the Rám Pol. The total length of the ascent is 1595 yards, and the slope, which is nearly uniform throughout, is about 1 in 15; the whole roadway is roughly paved. The second gate, known as the Lakola, is at the extreme northern point of the fort, and the ascent to it is by a small rugged pathway, little used. On the eastern face is the third entrance, known as the Súraj Pol; the ascent to it is about 750 yards in length, the latter half being paved. There is an abundant supply of water inside the fort from tanks, 32 in number; and there is also a perennial spring from the lower part of the precipice over the city, which appears to be excellent drinking water. Though the soil inside the walls is very rocky, a great portion of the northern half produces annual crops of *joár*. In the centre are a few wheat-fields irrigated from the tanks, but to the south it is quite uncultivated. Little of pasturage is to be found inside the walls. As a fortress the place possesses great advantages; the hill itself, averaging about 450 feet above the surrounding country, precipitous at the top, and the whole covered with dense *dhao* jungle, forms in itself no slight obstacle; and there is no commanding position within the range of even modern artillery. This ancient fortress was the capital of the country from A.D. 728, when Bapa Ráwal, according to tradition, wrested it from the then reigning chief, till 1568, when it was finally deserted on its storm and capture by the Emperor Akbar. The oldest monument now standing is the Khowasin Sthamba, a remarkable square pillar $75\frac{1}{2}$ feet in height, 30 feet in diameter at the base, and 15 feet at the top, and covered with Jain figures. Tod mentions a fragment of an inscription at its base bearing date A.D. 896; and it may be accepted as the work of the 10th century. There are also many Jain inscriptions still extant; but the oldest noted by Tod was dated 755. The entire top of the hill is covered with the ruins of temples, palaces, and reservoirs, all fully described by Tod. The chief object of interest is the Khirat Khúmb, the pillar erected in 1450 by Ráná Khúmbhu, to commemorate his defeat of the combined armies of Málwá and Gujarát in 1439. This column is 122 feet in height; the breadth of each face at the base is 35 feet, and at the summit, immediately under the cupola, $17\frac{1}{2}$ feet. It stands on a terrace, 42 feet square, and has 9 distinct storeys, with openings at every face of each storey. It is built chiefly of compact limestone and the quartz rock on which it stands, and the whole is covered with architectural ornaments and sculpture representing an immense variety of mythological subjects.

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Chitrá (*'The Variegated,'* or *'Glancing Waters'*).—River in Jessor District, Bengal. In Rennel's *Bengal Atlas*, of the last century, this river appears as an offshoot of the Nabágangá, at a point 3 miles from where the latter river left the Mátábhángá. At the present day, however, the head of the Chitrá is completely closed, partly by the silting up of the Nabágangá, and partly by an artificial disconnection with it, by means of an embankment which an indigo planter threw across the head of the Chitrá about forty-five years ago. The river flows through Jessor in a south-south-easterly direction, past Kálíganj, Khajurá, Ghorákhálí, Narál, and Gobrá, till it loses itself in the low marshy country in the interior of the District. Navigable in a portion of its course by boats of about 2 tons burthen from the commencement of the rains up to December, but before the end of February closed to all but the smallest craft.

Chitrál.—The capital of a State of the same name in the Kunar or Káshkár valley, Kashmir. Lat. 35° 55′ N., long. 71° 56′ E.; elevation, 5200 feet; 48 miles south-west from Mastuj, on the Káshkár river. The soil of the valley is fertile, producing much grain and quantities of many European fruits, as well as excellent grapes. According to tradition, Chitrál was the wine cellar of Afrasiáb. The valley resembles Káfaristán in physical features and coldness of climate. The men of the valley are tall and well-made, and the women remarkable for their beauty, bearing a strong resemblance in their physiognomy and colour to the hill people of Chamba and Kángra. Slavery is common, and the slave trade forms one of the principal items of revenue of the Chitrál rulers. Trade is carried on chiefly by barter. Caravans of petty merchants pass through Chitrál annually between Pesháwar, Panjkora, Swát, and Jalálábád on the south, and Badakshán Kúnduz, Balkh, Túrkistán, Kolab, and Yárkand on the north. Very few but Afghans trade between Yárkand and Pesháwar. The Chitrál State owns the supremacy of Kashmír.

Chitrávati.—River in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. It rises at Nandidrúg in Mysore, and, flowing across Bellary District, joins the Pennár in the Jamalamadugu *táluk*.

Chitráwáo.—Petty State of Gohelwár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1881, £160. Pays tribute of £49 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £3, 16s. to Junágarh.

Chittagong.—Division or Commissionership of Bengal, lying between 20° 45′ and 24° 16′ N. lat., and between 90° 32′ and 92° 44′ E. long.; comprising the Districts of CHITTAGONG, NOAKHALI, TIPPERAH, and the CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS. Bounded on the north by the Hill Tipperah State; on the east by the hilly tract inhabited by Lusháis and other half-savage tribes; on the south by Akyab District in British

Burma; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal and the Meghná estuary. Area, 12,118 square miles; number of towns and villages, 11,113; number of occupied houses, 492,722. Total population (1881) 3,574,048, namely, males 1,774,336, and females 1,799,712; average density of population, 295 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·92; houses per square mile, 42·10; persons per village, 322; persons per occupied house, 7·25. Divided according to religion, Muhammadans number 2,425,610; Hindus, 1,017,963; Buddhists, 128,568; Christians, 1891; Sikhs, 5; Bráhmos, 8; and 'others,' 3. Approximate land revenue, £290,654.

Chittagong.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 20° 45′ and 22° 59′ N. lat., and between 91° 30′ and 92° 25′ E. long. Area, 2567 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,132,341. Bounded on the north-west and north by the river Phení, which separates it from the British Districts of Noákhálí and Tipperah, and from the semi-independent State of Hill Tipperah; on the east by the Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Arakan Province of British Burma, the river Náf forming the frontier; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal. The chief town and administrative head-quarters is CHITTAGONG or Islámábád.

Physical Aspects.—Chittagong District consists of a long and narrow strip of coast, backed by low ranges of hills, lying between the Bay of Bengal and the Chittagong and Arakan Hill Tracts. Its length is about 165 miles, and its average breadth about 15 miles. The low ranges of hills run, through the greater part of their length, almost parallel with each other, and with the coast-line. The level strip of land between the coast and the first of these ranges is intersected by numerous large tidal creeks, especially an alluvial tract in the central portion of the District opposite the islands of Maheshkhál and Kutabdía, which in character and general appearance greatly resembles the Gangetic SUNDARBANS. These creeks are navigable, but are not used to any great extent for purposes of commerce; and in the Sundarban tract alluded to, they are silting up at their mouths. New land is thus constantly being formed, which soon becomes covered with mangrove, scrub, and palms. The principal rivers of the District are the Karnaphulí and the Sangu, both of which are navigable throughout the year. The Phení, which forms the boundary between Chittagong and Noákhálí, can hardly be called a river of the District, and nowhere intersects it. The Karnaphulí rises in the north-east of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and, after a very tortuous westerly and south-westerly course through Chittagong, falls into the Bay of Bengal. Chittagong town and port are situated on the north bank of this river, about 12 miles from its mouth. Up to this point it is navigable by large sea-going ships and steamers, and throughout its entire course in the District by large

cargo boats. The principal tributary of the Karnaphulí is the Haldá. The Sangu, which takes its rise in the south-eastern corner of the Arakan Hill Tracts, also follows a very circuitous course, and finally enters the Bay of Bengal 10 miles south of the Karnaphulí. It is navigable by large cargo boats for a distance of 30 miles throughout the year, and its chief tributary, the Dolu, for 7 miles all the year round, and 14 miles in the rainy season. Smaller streams and watercourses, navigable throughout the rainy season by small native boats, intersect the District in all directions. A considerable portion of the low-lying tract of Chittagong is protected by embankments from the sea. The principal of these embankments are those in the island of Kutabdiá, and the Gandámára dykes built to protect the village of Gandámára. Most of the embankments, including those just named, were for some time abandoned by Government, and destroyed by the sea. They have been recently reconstructed. There are five principal hill ranges in the District—namely (1) the Sitákund; (2) the Goliásí; (3) the Sátkániá; (4) the Máskhál; and (5) the Teknáf range. Of these, the most interesting is the first-named, which contains the sacred peak of Chandranáth or Sitákund, 1155 feet in height, the highest hill in the District. There are no lakes in Chittagong District. The canals or artificial watercourses consist of a line of re-opened creeks in the coast tract, solely used for navigation. One of these canals or creeks commences on the coast 12 miles north of the mouth of the Karnaphulí, and falls into that river just below Chittagong town; the others form a line of communication between the Karnaphulí river and the sea at Jalkadar opposite Kutabdiá island. They are leased out annually under the Canal Tolls Act to farmers who levy a fixed rate of toll. These creeks are very important, and the line formed by them is one of the great highways of the District. Numerous ferries are established across the principal rivers and streams, the tolls of which, with one or two exceptions, are leased out annually in the same manner as the canals. Most of the villages possess water communication; and nearly every inhabitant of the District may be said to live more or less by river traffic. Grain, cotton, pottery, firewood, dried fish, and bamboos form the chief articles of local river trade. The sea and river fisheries are very valuable, and form a means of livelihood to a large section of the population. The chief localities for inland fisheries are the rivers Karnaphulí, Sangu, Haldá, and Chándkhálí; but the sea-coast fishery at Sonádiá and Kálí Daha is the most extensive. The dried fish are principally sent to Chittagong town; but with the exception of sharks' fins, which are exported to Rangoon, there is no exportation of fish from the District. The jungle products consist of reeds, canes, and bamboos, mostly brought from the valleys in the hill ranges, where the hill slopes

afford abundant pasturage for cattle. No coal or minerals are known to exist in Chittagong. A hot spring on the sacred hill of SITAKUND is a great place of pilgrimage, and is visited by pious Hindus from all parts of India. There is also a salt-spring, known by the name of Labanakhya, situated about 3 miles north of the Sitákund, which is also reputed to be of great sanctity, and is visited by large numbers of pilgrims. The wild animals of the District consist of the tiger, elephant, rhinoceros, leopard, wild boar, and deer. There is a considerable export trade in king-fisher skins to Burma and China.

History.—Chittagong originally formed part of the extensive Hindu kingdom of Tipperah; but, prior to its conquest by the Muhammadans, it had frequently changed masters. Lying on the frontier between Bengal and Burma, it formed a source of chronic feud between the Hindu King of Tipperah and the Buddhist King of Arakan. The District was probably first conquered by the Muhammadans during the period of Afghán supremacy in Bengal, between the 13th and 16th centuries. The Portuguese historian, Faria de Souza, states that, in 1538, the Viceroy of Goa despatched an envoy to the Afghán King of Bengal, who landed at Chittagong, and proceeded thence to the capital at Gaur. The king, however, being suspicious of the intentions of the Portuguese, seized thirteen members of the embassy at Gaur, together with their ship's company. In revenge for this outrage, the Portuguese, some months afterwards, burned Chittagong. During the struggle between the Mughals and Afgháns for the supremacy in Bengal, towards the close of the 16th century, Chittagong seems to have been reconquered by the Rájá of Arakan, and annexed to his kingdom as a tributary Province; this reconquest, however, was ignored by the Mughals, after the final expulsion of the Afgháns from Bengal. Todar Mall, Akbar's finance minister, continued to treat the District as an integral part of the Muhammadan dominions; and, in 1582, fixed its assessment on the rent-roll of the Empire 'by estimation' at £28,560. As a matter of fact, Chittagong was then a Province of Arakan, and remained so until 1666, when it was reannexed to the Mughal Empire. In 1638, Matak Rái, a Magh chief, held Chittagong on behalf of the Arakan Rájá; but, having displeased his prince, and fearing punishment, he sought the protection of the Mughals, acknowledged himself a vassal of the Delhi Empire, and nominally made over the sovereignty of his territory to the Governor of Bengal. Soon after this, the depredations of the Arakanese became intolerable. For many years they had been making piratical incursions into the Muhammadan territory, penetrating far up the rivers of Bengal, and carrying into slavery the inhabitants of all the river-side villages. The Maghs were aided by numbers of half-caste Portuguese adventurers, retained in the employ of the Rájá of Arakan. To such an extent

were these depredations carried, that in a map of Bengal by Major J. Rennel, Surveyor-General, published in 1794, a note is entered across the portion of the Sundarbans, immediately south of Bákarganj town, that 'this part of the country has been deserted on account of the ravages of the Muggs.' It is, however, probable that only a portion of the deserted tract was laid waste by the Maghs, and that the true cause of the desolation is the change which has taken place in the river system of the delta.

In 1664–65, Sháistá Khán, then Governor of Bengal, resolved to put an end to these piratical incursions, and for that purpose undertook an expedition against the Arakan Rájá on such a scale as would secure the permanent conquest of Chittagong. He accordingly assembled a powerful fleet of boats, and an army 13,000 strong. Of this force, 3000 were despatched in the fleet, under the command of an officer named Husain Beg, with orders to clear the rivers and islands of the pirates. The remaining force was placed under the command of his son Buzurg Umed Khán, with instructions to proceed by land and co-operate with the fleet. The expedition was a complete success. The ports at the mouth of the Meghná, and Sandwíp island, were captured by the fleet. The Portuguese auxiliaries to the Rájá of Arakan having been invited to assist the Mughals—under a threat from the general that if they failed he would, on the capture of Chittagong, put them to the sword—deserted the Rájá's service, and sailed for Sandwíp, where they were received by the Imperial general, and a residence assigned to them 12 miles below Dacca. The army under Umed Khán advanced by land, and after defeating the Arakanese in various encounters, finally carried the town of Chittagong by storm, which was thereupon re-annexed to Bengal, and its name changed to Islámábád, the Residence of the Faithful.

Twenty years after the occurrence of these events (1685), the first connection of the English with Chittagong took place. In that year, the East India Company, in consequence of disputes with the Nawáb of Bengal, sent out an expedition under Admiral Nicholson, with instructions to seize Chittagong and fortify it on behalf of the English. Owing to circumstances which occurred at Húglí (*see* HUGLI DISTRICT), the Admiral never proceeded to Chittagong, and the District did not pass into our possession until 1760, when it was ceded to the East India Company, along with Bardwán and Midnapur, by Mír Kásim. The administration of Chittagong was at once placed in the hands of an English 'Chief' with a Council, and the District soon settled down into a well-regulated English Province. Immediately after the annexation of Arakan by the King of Burma, a large immigration of Maghs took place into Chittagong, caused by the oppressions and exactions to which they were subjected by the Burmese Government. To this

immigration the first Burmese War may be indirectly traced. The Viceroy of Arakan despatched a military force to compel the return of the emigrants; and, although this force was withdrawn for other and more pressing needs elsewhere, aggressions on the frontier continued, which culminated in the forcible seizure of the island of Sháhpurí at the mouth of the Náf river, which had been many years in the undisputed occupation of the British. In the war of 1824 which ensued, a strong Burmese force, 8000 strong, marching on Chittagong, surrounded and annihilated a British detachment of about 300 Sepoys and 2 guns at Rámu, a frontier village to the south. Before the Burmese commander could follow up his success, the setting in of the rains rendered the roads impassable; and soon afterwards, on the capture of Rangoon, the Arakan force was recalled.

The only event of any importance in the recent history of the District was in connection with the Mutiny of 1857. In that year, the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th Companies of the 34th Native Infantry, stationed at Chittagong, suddenly broke into mutiny on the night of the 18th November, plundered the treasury, released the prisoners in the jail, and murdered a native constable, but abstained from molesting their inhabitants, and took their way into Hill Tipperah. They were promptly pursued, and broken up; the Rájá of Hill Tipperah and the hillmen arrested all stragglers, and sent them in to the British authorities. Since 1857, nothing has occurred to disturb the peace and good order of the District.

Population.—Prior to 1872, no systematic attempt was made to enumerate the population of Chittagong. In that year, the population over an area corresponding to the present limits of the District (*i.e.* allowing for transfers to and from neighbouring Districts), was returned at 1,127,402 souls. By the last Census of 1881, the number was returned at 1,132,341, or an increase of only 4939, or less than one-half per cent. The population of the District may be said to be now stationary, and indeed the males show an actual falling off of ·82 per cent. It must be remembered, however, that cholera is endemic in the District, that a peculiarly fatal and debilitating fever has raged for years, and that great loss of life was caused in the seaboard tracts by the cyclone of the 31st October 1876. Moreover, the cheapness of land and the high wages of labour in Arakan attract many settlers every year from Chittagong. Area of District, 2567 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1376; number of houses, 218,705, of which 211,387 were occupied and 7318 unoccupied; average density of population, 441·11 persons per square mile; towns and villages, ·54 per square mile; houses per square mile, 85·20; persons per village, 823; persons per occupied house, 5·36. Classified according to sex there were—males, 531,649, and females, 600,692; proportion of males, 46·9 per cent. of the total population.

The excess of the female over the male population of Chittagong is attributed to the fact, that the District supplies *laskars* or native sailors for vessels trading in Indian waters, and also sends a number of labourers to Arakan in the cold season, during which the Census was taken. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 801,986, or 70·82 per cent. of the population; Hindus, 275,177, or 24·28 per cent.; Buddhists, 54,110, or 4·77 per cent.; Christians, 1055; Sikhs, 5; and Bráhmos, 8. The aboriginal tribes numbered 1356 in 1881, most of whom are Nats or demon-worshippers, but they are returned in the above figures as Hindus by religion. Among the high Hindu castes Bráhmans numbered 21,355, and Rájputs 1040. Among the other castes the most numerous are the following:—Baniyá, 8030; Báruí, 4766; Dhobí, 11,446; Jaliyá, 15,312; Jugí, 27,351; Kaibartta, 4542; Káyasth, the most numerous caste in the District, 72,370; Kumbhar, 5095; Nápit, 15,382; Súdra, 29,334; and Tántí, 5248. The Muhammadan community is divided according to sect into Sunnís, 797,452; Shiás, 3569; and unspecified, 965. Of the Christian population, 211 are Europeans; the great majority of the remainder being Firinghís, the descendants of the early Portuguese adventurers who played such an important part in the history of Chittagong two centuries ago. At one time they were extensive shipowners and wealthy men, but they are now fast decreasing in importance. In the interior, a few of them follow agricultural pursuits; but for the most part they reside in Chittagong town. Even as late as the beginning of the present century, the Firinghís possessed large numbers of slaves, often exceeding 50 in one family. The process of miscegenation which has been long going on has completely deprived the present descendants of the Portuguese of any resemblance to their ancestors; and except by their dress, they are hardly distinguishable in appearance from the natives. By neglect of education, the Firinghís have allowed the natives to outstrip them, and many appointments, of which they had formerly the monopoly, are now held by Hindus and Muhammadans.

Town and Rural Population.—The population is altogether rural; and, with the exception of the municipality of Chittagong, there is no town containing more than 5000 inhabitants. The population of CHITTAGONG TOWN is 20,969; COX'S BAZAR (population 4363) is the only other town of any importance in the District, and in it more than three-fourths of the population are Maghs. Of the 1376 villages and towns in the District, 356 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 408 from two hundred to five hundred; 273 from five hundred to a thousand; 201 from one thousand to two thousand; 78 from two thousand to three thousand; 38 from three thousand to five thousand; and 21 village unions (*mauzás*) from five thousand to ten thousand; and

1 town (Chittagong) upwards of twenty thousand inhabitants. The principal villages are Phatikchari, Kumiriá, Háthazárí, Ráoján, Patiá, Sátkániá, Chandranáth (on Sítákund Hill, a much frequented place of pilgrimage), Máskhál (in the island of the same name), Chakariá, and Ramu. Near Rájákul, a village to the south of Ramu, are the remains of an old fort which, it is supposed, belonged to a Magh chieftain; but there are singularly few relics in the District suggestive of its historical importance.

Occupations.—The Census Report of 1881 divides the male population as regards occupation into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional class, including all civil and military officials, and the learned professions, 10,905; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 7522; (3) Commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 18,006; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 142,267; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 34,014; (6) indefinite and non-productive, including male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 318,335.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop of Chittagong. There are three harvests in the year—*boro*, or spring rice; *áus*, the autumn crop; and *áman*, or winter rice. These are further sub-divided into 33 principal varieties. Other crops are Indian corn, wheat, barley, peas, jute, flax, mustard, sugar-cane, *pán*, cotton, tobacco, and tea. Of these the most important are the three last-named. An account of the cultivation of cotton and tobacco in the Hill Tracts will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 199–207. The introduction of tea into the District dates from 1840, in which year some tea-seed was received from Assam and three China plants from Calcutta. Three years later, the first tea was manufactured in the District. According to the latest returns, the total cultivated area in Chittagong amounts to 544,640 acres, and the area cultivable but not cultivated to 21,120 acres. Almost the whole—537,472 acres—of the cultivated area is devoted to food-crops. The average produce per acre of rice is about 15 *maunds* or 11 cwts.; wheat, 11 cwts.; inferior grains, 12 cwts.; oil-seeds, $5\frac{3}{4}$ cwts.; tobacco, 7 cwts. The average rent for good land is about £1, 2s. 6d. an acre; and for poor soil, about 12s. Rich alluvial land along the banks of rivers, suited to the cultivation of tobacco, *pán*, and other special crops, is rented at much higher rates, the average being £2, 2s. an acre. Wages have increased very considerably of late years. In 1850–51, day-labourers and ploughmen received $1\frac{1}{2}$d. a day; in 1860–61, they earned from $3\frac{3}{4}$d. to $5\frac{1}{4}$d.; by 1870–71, the wage for the same class of labour had risen as high as 6d. and $7\frac{1}{2}$d., and in 1882, 9d. and 1s. In the same way, smiths, bricklayers, and carpenters, who,

in 1850–51, were paid 2¼d. a day, earned in 1860–61, 4½d. to 6¾d., and in 1870–71, 7½d. The average price of the best cleaned rice in 1870–71 was 6s. 10d. a cwt., and of coarse rice, 5s. The average price per cwt. of other produce was returned in the same year as follows:—Wheat, 6s. 2d.; linseed, 6s.; jute, 8s. 2d.; cotton, £1, 4s. 6d.; sugar, £1, 15s. 6d.; salt, 15s. Manure is used to some extent in Chittagong, and irrigation is effected by means of the numerous water-courses. *Pán* gardens are allowed to lie fallow for two years after three successive crops have been obtained. Sugar-cane is not grown two successive years on the same land. Chittagong is essentially a District of small estates. The peasantry, as a rule, are in good circumstances, seldom in debt, and very independent; many of them add to their income derived from agriculture, by working as labourers, boatmen, petty traders, etc. They are, however, of an exceedingly litigious and quarrelsome disposition, having recourse to the District Courts on the most frivolous pretext.

Natural Calamities.—Blights occur from time to time, but not to such an extent as to affect the general food-supply of the District. The lands along the coast are often flooded by the sea, and much injury is done, for the existing embankments do not afford adequate protection against the encroachments of the water. Chittagong is also exposed to storms, but serious injury is rare. A severe cyclone passed over the southern portion of the District in October 1872, causing considerable loss of life and destruction of property. The cyclone and storm-wave of the 31st October 1876 swept the seaboard with still more disastrous results. This last inundation extended inland for a distance of from three to six miles, except where the mouths of rivers and creeks afforded the storm-wave an easy entrance, and there the flood passed much farther up and spread over the country for miles. It is estimated that 12,000 persons were drowned in Chittagong alone, and 14,788 are said to have perished in the cholera epidemic which succeeded the inundation. Famine is unknown in the District, and could only result from a combination of extensive loss of local crops, with great scarcity in the Gangetic Delta and in Burma. Drought is almost unknown in the District, and no demand exists for any irrigation works. The maximum price of rice in 1866, the year of the great Orissa famine, was 13s. 8d. a cwt., and of unhusked paddy, 5s. 5d. a cwt.

Commerce, etc.—The chief imports into Chittagong are piece-goods, salt, and earth-oil, and the principal exports tea and jute, the latter being largely shipped from this port in preference to Calcutta. The District trade is virtually that of Chittagong town and port, and the statistics are given fully in the article on Chittagong town (*post*, p. 445). Besides the town and port of Chittagong, the chief seats of trade in the District are Cox's Bázár, Mahájan-hát, Názir-hát, and Roájá-hát;

but nearly every village has a permanent *hát* or market held twice a week.

Manufactures are not carried on to any great extent in the District. A little coarse cloth is woven from cotton, and common kinds of pottery and silver and gold ornaments of inferior workmanship are made. There are several steam rice husking mills; and ship-building is carried on. The carpenters are skilful, but a want of energy is observable in this industry. In 1881–82, there were in Chittagong 386 miles of road, maintained at a total cost of £8969. There are several natural creeks, which furnish excellent means of communication. The more important of these have a total length of about 36 miles, and, together with the roads above mentioned, are kept up by the District Road Committee. These waterways are all under the Canal Tolls Act, and are let out to farmers, who levy a fixed toll. The Dacca Trunk Road, of which 45 miles lie within the District, is maintained by Government. Chittagong District will shortly be brought in connection with the regular railway system of India; surveys have been carried out for a line from Chittagong town to the Meghná at Daúdkandí in Noákhálí District, opposite Naráinganj in Dacca, a length of 128 miles. A ferry service between Daúdkandí and Naráinganj will connect the Chittagong line with the Dacca-Maimansingh Railway now under construction. At Comilla in Tipperah District, the Chittagong line will connect the project with the projected railway northwards to Assam and Cachar.

Tea.—Tea cultivation was introduced into the District in 1840, in which year some tea-seeds were received from Assam, and a few China plants from the Calcutta Botanical Gardens. Three years later, the first tea was manufactured in Chittagong. In the end of 1862, a single planter, who visited the District, took up 20,000 acres of land; after this, other speculators came forward, applications for allotments of waste lands poured in, and a number of gardens were started, many of which failed through the fault of the managers, or from unsuitable sites having been chosen. Most of the lands intended for tea-planting are held in fee-simple, having been purchased under the Waste-Land Rules. Rich land, with good drainage, is considered the best for the growth of tea; most of the suitable and accessible sites have been already taken up for cultivation. The number of plantations in 1872 was 13; the area under cultivation, 1203 acres; area taken up for planting, but not then planted, 23,687 acres. The approximate yield was 205,112 lbs., or an average of 198 lbs. per acre of mature plant. In 1868–69, the number of chests exported was 502, of about 86 lbs. each; estimated value, £4016. In 1872–73, 3342 chests were exported, valued at £29,977; in 1873–74, 4427 chests, valued at £30,147. In 1881–82, 810,397 lbs. of tea were exported, of the value of £65,117.

Administration.—When Chittagong was ceded to the English in

1760, it contained an area of 2987 square miles, and yielded (inclusive of grants for the maintenance of a military force) a revenue of *Sikhá* Rs. 323,135. The earlier tables of revenue and expenditure contain so many items which are mere matters of account, transfer, and deposit, that they are useless for comparative purposes. In 1881-82, the net revenue of the District was £149,320. The land-tax forms the most important item of revenue. In 1790 there were only 3376 estates, and 5384 proprietors, paying a total land revenue of £51,412, or £15, 4s. 6¾d. per estate. By 1850-51, the number of estates had risen to 40,764, and of proprietors to 61,040; land revenue, £78,414; average per estate, £1, 18s. 5½d. The number of estates paying rent to Government in 1870-71 was 29,408, and the number of proprietors or coparceners, 52,047; the average land revenue paid by each estate being £2, 11s. 1½d., and the average paid by each proprietor, £1, 8s. 10¾d. The term 'estate,' however, is not always used in the same sense, and is sometimes made to include under-tenures. In 1881-82, there were about 29,000 estates paying revenue to Government, and 5 *khás mahals*, or estates in which the Government is absolute proprietor, and collects the rent direct from the tenants. There were also nearly 36,000 rent-free properties. The revenue from the five Government estates in 1881-82 aggregated £13,172, and from the 29,000 private estates, £66,608; total, £79,780. The rent-free properties pay only towards local rates, such as the Road Cess and the Postal Cess. A large special establishment is maintained for the purpose of inquiring into and registering all titles to land. The number of magisterial courts in 1880-81 was 10, and of civil and revenue courts, 13. For police purposes, the District is divided into 13 *tháná*s. The regular police force consisted in 1880-81 of 385 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £7227. There was also a municipal force of 61 men, costing £633, and a village police consisting of 2037 men, receiving £9221 in money and lands. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property in the District consisted of 2483 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £17,081; giving one man to every 1 square mile, and for every 456 of the population. The District possesses a central jail at Chittagong, and a lock-up at Cox's Bázár. The average daily number of prisoners in 1881 was 135. An English school was first established by Government in Chittagong in 1836, and in 1869 a high school (subsequently developed into a college) was opened in connection with it. The college department contained 17 pupils in 1882, and the collegiate school, 455 pupils. Since the introduction of the scheme for the encouragement of primary education, the number of Government and aided schools established up to March 1882 was 786, attended by 21,288 pupils. Apart from Government aid or inspection, Chittagong District stands exceptionally high in the general

diffusion of indigenous elementary education. For the special requirements of the Muhammadan community, a Madrása has been established at Chittagong, maintained out of the proceeds of the Mohsin Endowment fund, a bequest made by a benevolent Muhammadan. The pupils numbered 314 in March 1882, of whom 28 were boarders. For administrative purposes, Chittagong is divided into two Sub-divisions. The fiscal sub-division into *parganás* has not been introduced into this District.

Medical Aspects. — Chittagong is very unhealthy. Every form of malarious disease is met with, intermittent fever being the most common. This fever seldom proves directly fatal; but its constant recurrence causes enlargement of the spleen and liver, anæmia, dropsy, and ultimately death from debility. The District is hardly ever entirely free from cholera. Amongst other causes to which the unhealthiness of Chittagong has been attributed, are the numerous tidal creeks and *kháls* (which have been described as 'simply a series of open sewers, without the advantage of ever being well flushed'), and the extraordinarily large number of tanks scattered over the lowlands, which are never cleaned, and are almost invariably choked with weeds and decaying vegetation. Chittagong town being open to the sea-breeze, which usually prevails during the day, is cool; but the atmosphere is often laden with moisture, and heavy night dews and occasional fogs are the result. Average annual temperature, 77·6° F. The average temperature in 1881 was 77°, the highest maximum recorded being 92·2° in March, and the lowest minimum 47·6° in January. Average annual rainfall for twenty-five years ending 1881 was 103·58 inches. The rainfall in 1881 was 95·76 inches, or 7·82 inches below the average. [For further information regarding Chittagong, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 106–223 (London: Trübner & Co., 1876). Also *Revenue History of Chittagong*, by H. J. S. Cotton, Esq. (Calcutta, 1880); *Census Report of Bengal* for 1881; and the *Annual Administration Reports for Bengal* from 1880 to 1883.]

Chittagong.—Head-quarters Sub-division of the District of same name, Bengal; lying between 21° 50′ and 22° 59′ N. lat., and between 91° 30′ and 92° 14′ 45″ E. long. Area, 1630 square miles, with 1101 villages and towns, and 181,415 occupied houses. Population (1881), namely, Muhammadans, 673,949; Hindus, 261,510; Buddhists, 34,480; Christians, 1041; and 'others,' 13: total, 970,993, being 454,401 males and 516,592 females. Average density of population, 596 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 115; persons per village, 882; persons per house, 5·3. The Sub-division consists of the 9 police circles (*thánás*) of Chittagong, Kumiriá, Mirkasarái, Háthazárí, Phatikcharí, Ráoján, Patiá, Sátkániá, and Banskháli. In 1883, it contained 13 civil and 6 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 335 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 1802.

Chittagong.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Chittagong District, and the second port in Bengal. Lat. 22° 21′ 3″ N., long. 91° 52′ 44″ E.; area, 9 square miles; population (1881) 20,969, namely, 14,478 Muhammadans, 5660 Hindus, and 831 'others.' Of the total population, 12,180 are males and only 8789 females, the excess of males being due to the fact that many men come into the town from other parts in search of employment, leaving their families at home. Chittagong is situated on the right bank of the Karnaphulí river, about 12 miles from its mouth. The town is merely an agglomeration of small villages grouped together for municipal purposes. The houses occupied by the European residents are scattered over a considerable area, each house on a separate hill. These hills, though small, are very steep, and, with one or two exceptions, it is impossible to drive to the top. The principal streets are Díwán-bázár and its continuation Chandanpura-bázár, which run through the town from north to south. Besides the houses of the European and the principal native residents, the chief brick buildings are the Government offices, circuit house, and *dák* bungalow, churches (Roman Catholic and Protestant), several large mosques, a home for European sailors, hotel, schools, and dispensary. The municipal income for the year 1881–82 was £2593, derived mainly from the house-tax; rate of taxation, 2s. per head. The notorious unhealthiness of Chittagong is partly attributable to the existence of a large number of stagnant pools and tanks, from which malarious exhalations arise. Malaria is also carried by the prevalent wind (from the south or south-west) from the extensive *chars*, or marshy islands, which have been thrown up in the river opposite the town. Efforts are being made to improve the sanitary condition of the place.

Chittagong has long been an important place of trade, and the early Portuguese merchants gave it the name of Porto Grando. The establishment of the European settlements on the Húglí caused it to sink for a time into comparative insignificance. But of late it has gradually been resuming its place as a great centre of commerce; and the port, which is one of the best in India, is frequented by vessels from foreign countries as well as from the Indian Presidencies. Unfortunately it is comparatively inaccessible to native craft coming from Tipperah, Noákhálí, Dacca, and Bákarganj, which must, before entering the river, round a point where rough weather is often encountered. This risk they will not run, except during a short period from December to March, which covers most of the rice season, but does not allow of a traffic in oil-seed, jute, etc. As a remedy for this, a proposal is now (1883) before the Government of India for a line of railway from Chittagong to Daúdkandí, in Tipperah District, with a ferry service to Naráinganj, which will go far to make Chittagong the port for the trade

of the whole of Eastern Bengal. The length of the line would be 128 miles, and the work presents no engineering difficulties.

The trade of the port is steadily increasing, and in 1881–82, both in regard to foreign and coasting trade, was larger than in any previous year. The number of vessels which entered the port in 1860–61 was 66—tonnage, 9743; in 1865, the number of vessels was 221, with a tonnage of 44,282; in 1874–75, it was 220—tonnage, 83,900. In 1860–61, 100 vessels cleared—tonnage, 14,499; in 1865–66, the number of ships cleared was 247, with a tonnage of 47,905; 1874–75, it was 215, with a tonnage of 86,264. In 1881–82 no fewer than 771 sea-going vessels, with a tonnage of 191,540, entered; and 773 vessels, of a tonnage of 188,599, cleared from Chittagong port. As regards trade statistics, the merchandise imported into or exported from Chittagong by country boats during 1881–82 was—imports, 1,736,408 cwts., value £471,861; and exports, 251,343 cwts., valued at £140,830. Total inland import and export trade in 1881–82, 1,987,751 cwts., valued at £612,692. As regards the sea-borne trade, the imports amounted to £899,977 in value in 1881–82; and the exports to £986,369. Total value of sea-borne import and export trade in 1881–82, £1,886,346. The port dues and pilotage fees on vessels in 1881–82 yielded £6082. The principal sea imports are salt, which was imported to the extent of 275,564 cwts. in 1881–82; and European twist, yarn, and piece-goods, to the value of £186,450. The exports included rice (864,462 cwts. in 1881–82); jute and gunny (613,471 cwts.); and tea (736,817 lbs., value £67,117).

The water on the right bank of the river Karnaphulí (the side on which the port is situated) is becoming shallower every year—a fact which is accounted for by the action of the river. About two miles above Chittagong, the stream sets strongly against the right bank, and being thrown off with considerable force, strikes with increasing vehemence against the left bank, about a mile above the town. Broad strips of land are thus yearly washed away into the river, and a large *char* or sandbank has formed in front of the upper portion of the town. Artificial means have been taken to protect the port; and the current, again thrown off, sets against the left bank once more, and has scoured out a new channel, separated from the shipping by a *char* in the middle of the river.

Chittagong has more than once played a conspicuous part in history. It was besieged and captured in 1665 by the Mughals, under Umed Khán, who changed the name of the place to Islámábád (*vide* CHITTAGONG DISTRICT). In 1857, on the night of the 18th November, the men of the 34th Native Infantry, stationed at Chittagong, suddenly mutinied. They released all the prisoners in the jail, killing one native constable, and early on the morning of the 19th left the station, carrying away

with them three Government elephants, some ammunition, and treasure to the value of about £27,800, of which about £5000 was subsequently recovered. No one but the native constable was killed; and the *émeute* was not of any serious consequence.

Chittagong Hill Tracts.—District in the Chittagong Division of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 13′ and 23° 47′ N. lat., and between 91° 46′ and 92° 49′ E. long. Area, 5419 square miles. Population (1881) 101,597 souls. Bounded on the north by Hill Tipperah State, on the west by Chittagong District, and on the south by the Burmese District of Akyab. The eastern boundary is formed by a line running from the south-east corner of Hill Tipperah, along the course of the Túilenpúi or Sájjúk river, to its junction with the Karnaphulí; thence along the course of the Túichang, across the Uipúm range to the west, and along the Thegá Khál to its headwaters; thence westward along the watershed of the Weybong-tang, until it meets the southern hill station of Keokradong on the Arakan frontier. The administrative head-quarters are at RANGAMATI, but the most populous place in the District is BANDARBAN.

Physical Aspects.—The District is divided into four valleys, constituted by its four principal rivers—the PHENI, the KARNAPHULI, the SANGU, the MATAMURI, and their tributaries—and marked by chains of hills running from the south in a north-westerly direction. The Sangu and Mátámurí rivers, until they enter the plains, run parallel to the ranges, forming two regular valleys; the Karnaphulí and Phení flow transversely across the main line of the hills, and the valleys here are formed by large tributaries of the Karnaphulí entering the river at right angles to its course. The general aspect of the District has been described as 'a tangled mass of hill, ravine, and cliff, covered with dense tree, bush, and creeper jungle. The intervals between the smaller hill ranges are filled up with a mass of jungle, low hills, small watercourses, and swamps of all sizes and descriptions, so erratic in their configuration as to render any description impossible. . . . From the summits of the main ranges, the view of the apparently boundless sea of forest is grand in the extreme. Viewed from these points, the lower jungle almost assumes the appearance of a level green plain, while in reality it is one of the most difficult countries to pass through that can be imagined.' Along the valleys and courses of the chief rivers, the scenery is of a different character, being for the most part dull and uninteresting. The banks of the rivers are generally covered with tall elephant grass or dense jungle, which effectually prevents any view being obtained of the surrounding country. There are, however, some striking exceptions to this account of the river scenery; and Captain T. H. Lewin (to whose *Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein*, this article is greatly indebted) has described in very eloquent language the scenes which are occasionally

to be met with. Near Rángámátí, on the Karnaphulí river, for example, 'the character of the scenery'—writes Captain Lewin—'changes from its usual dull monotony of reaches of still water and walls of dark-green verdure, to a scene of marvellous beauty, resembling somewhat the view on the Rhine near the Lurleiberg. Dark cliffs of brown vitreous rock, patched and mottled with lichens and mosses of various colours, tower up on either hand; while, occasionally, on the right or left, shoots back a dark gorge of impenetrable jungle.' The same writer describes exquisite bits of scenery along some of the affluents of the Mátámurí river. The chief rivers of the District have already been named, and will be found fully described under their respective names. The most important of them, the Karnaphulí, called by the hillmen Kynsa Khyoung, rises in a lofty range of hills to the north-east, and, after flowing by a most tortuous course through the Hill Tracts, enters Chittagong District at the village of Chandraguná. The Sangu, which rises in the hill range dividing the District from Arakan, after a course, generally northerly, of about 125 miles, reaches Bandárban, below which point it is affected by the tide. The Phení forms the northern boundary of the District. Although all these rivers are of great depth during the rains, the rapidity and violence of their currents, their sharp turns and whirling eddies, render them, practically speaking, unavailable for large craft within the limits of the District, and present considerable dangers to small boats. In addition to these rivers, the District is intersected by a network of hill streams, navigable for some distance by canoes, but which cannot be classed as navigable rivers. A mountain lake of great beauty, situated on the east side of the Rámakrí Tang hill, was discovered in 1875 by Lieutenant Gordon, the officer in charge of the Sangu Sub-division. It is about a mile long by a quarter of a mile broad, and well stocked with fish. The mountains of the District are steep, and can only be ascended slowly and painfully by men, along known zig-zag paths, or by cutting similar tracks through the jungle with which they are covered. The highest hills are—Rángráng-dang (2789 feet) and Luráin Tang (2355 feet), both peaks in the Tyambang range; and Basitang (2181 feet), the principal peak of a range of the same name. Valuable forest trees are found throughout almost the entire area of the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Nearly the whole area (5419 square miles) was, in 1871, declared to be Government forest; and the collection of all the revenue tolls in the District, which had previously been leased to the hill chiefs, was transferred to the Forest Department. The amount realized by Government in 1870–71, by leasing out the right to levy tolls on forest produce, was £1013; the amount realized by the Forest Department at its 19 toll stations in 1880–81 was £7306, the expenditure incurred during that year being only £1242. Both lignite and coal have been found in the Chittagong

Hill Tracts, and specimens have been analyzed; but the proportion of ash proved too large to hold out any prospect of working the mineral at a profit. Limestone is also found, but of an inferior quality, and its manufacture has proved unprofitable. Sandstone exists in abundance. Salt-licks are found at many places, and are utilized by the Kukís as sources of the local salt-supply by boiling down the water in conical earthen pots. Elephants are found in great numbers, and a considerable portion of the Government supply is derived from the forests of this District. During the years 1866-68, the officers of the Elephant (*Khedá*) Department captured and took away no fewer than 200 of these animals. The rhinoceros is common, and tigers are numerous. Among other animals met with are the leopard, the Malay black bear, the jungle cat, the wild buffalo, the barking deer, the *sámbhar* deer, the lemur, and several kinds of monkeys. Snakes are eaten by the hill people, and are eagerly sought after; numerous varieties are found. The boa-constrictor is common, and often grows to an enormous size. Amongst the birds of the District may be mentioned the Polyplectron and the *maturá* or Arakan pheasant, button quails, jungle fowl, wood pigeons, and a few partridges, wild duck, and snipe.

History.—The history of the Chittagong Hill Tracts is a record of constantly-recurring raids on the part of the bordering hill tribes, against whom it has more than once been necessary to send punitive military expeditions. The earliest record of our dealings with the people of these hills is a letter from the Chief of Chittagong to Warren Hastings, the Governor-General, dated 10th April 1777, complaining of the violence and aggressions of a mountaineer named Rámu Khán, the leader of a band of Kukís or Lusháis. Again, in the end of the same year, military help was required 'for the protection of the inhabitants against the Kukís.' In 1860, the same tribe made a murderous raid into Tipperah District, killing 186 British subjects, and taking 100 prisoners. In January of the following year, a military force was assembled at Barkal to punish the offenders. The village of the chief, 18 miles north-east of Barkal, was found deserted and in flames; and the negotiations which followed for the pacification of the country ended in the submission of Rattan Puiya in October 1861. In 1864, 1865, and 1866, the Shendus made several raids; and between 1866 and 1871, the Haulong clan of Lusháis gave constant trouble. In 1870-71, this tribe perpetrated in Cachar a series of raids of an unusually aggravated character, in the course of which the lives of several Europeans were sacrificed, and the daughter of a planter, together with many native British subjects, was carried away captive by the raiders. These outrages determined the Government to undertake effective reprisals. Two military columns entered the Lushái country simultaneously, one from Cachar under General Bouchier, the other from

Chittagong under General Brownlow. The operations of these columns, extending over a period of five months, were entirely successful; the captives were recovered, and the offending tribes tendered their submission, and were required to pay a heavy fine for their unprovoked attacks. Since that date, no disturbance has taken place within British territory, although intertribal affrays have occurred beyond the frontier. The Hill Tracts were separated from the Regulation District of Chittagong in 1860.

Population.—According to the Census of 1881, the Chittagong Hill Tracts contain a population of 101,597 persons, spread over an area of 5419 square miles, and inhabiting 15,003 houses. The average density of the population is 18·75 per square mile, and the average number of houses, 2·77 per square mile. Classified according to sex, the number of males is 56,546, and of females, 45,051. The great majority of the population are either Chakmás or Maghs (more correctly, Kyoungthá), both of which races profess the Buddhist religion, and are about equally divided in number. These two Buddhist tribes together number 73,970, or 72·8 per cent. of the population. The remainder consist of 7292 Muhammadans, 20,285 Hindus, and 50 Christians, including 1 unspecified. The tribes inhabiting the District are divided into two classes—(1) the Kyoungthá, or 'Children of the River,' who are of Arakanese origin, speak the ancient Arakan dialect, and follow the Buddhist religion and customs; and (2) the Toungthá, or 'Children of the Hills,' who are either aborigines or of mixed origin, speak different dialects, and are more purely savages than the Kyoungthá. The Kyoungthá (or Jumiá Maghs, as they are also called) are sub-divided into 15 clans; they all dwell in village communities, having a *roájá* or village head, through whom they pay revenue. The villages to the south of the Karnaphulí river are subject to a chief called the Bohmong, who lives at Bandárban, on the Sangu river; while those to the north of the Karnaphulí acknowledge the supremacy of the Mong Rájá. Their spoken language is a dialect of Arakanese; the written character is the same as the Burmese. The Chakmás form numerically the largest tribe in the District. Although the majority of them do not speak Arakanese, Captain Lewin classes them with the Kyoungthá on account of the similarity of their habits. The name is sometimes spelt Tsakmá or Tsak, or, in Burmese, Thek. Mr. Hodgson believes that they are of aboriginal descent. The tribe is divided into 40 clans, each presided over by an hereditary *díwán* or head-man, who decides disputes, etc. Although the Chakmás profess the Buddhist faith, they are, in consequence of their constant contact with Bengálís, gradually evincing a tendency towards Hinduism. In one point they differ from all the other hill tribes,—they are very averse to changing the sites of their villages, which are kept from generation to generation

at one place. The Toungthá tribes, or 'Children of the Hills,' consist of the Tipperahs, Mrungs, Kumís, Mros, and Khyengs, all tributary and entirely under British control; the Bangís and Pankhos who, although paying no revenue, are subject to our influence; and the Lusháis or Kukís, and the Shendus, who are entirely independent. These tribes are in every respect wilder than the Kyoungthá, and less amenable to civilisation. Their villages are generally situated on lofty hills, and are difficult of access. Their clothing is extremely scanty, and their women do not hold so high a position as those of the Kyoungthá tribes. 'They worship the natural elements, and have vague and undefined ideas of some divine power which overshadows all.' Detailed accounts of the manners and customs of each of the tribes of the District will be found in Captain Lewin's valuable work already referred to.

There are no towns of any importance in the District. The largest village is BANDARBAN, the residence of the Bohmong, which has a population of about 2000. The village of Rángámáti, the head-quarters of the District, had, in 1881, a population of only 792. Apart from the military police force, the Government servants, and a few Bengalí shopkeepers, the whole population is agricultural.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop of the District. It is sown in April or May, and reaped in August, September, or October, according to the kind of crop. There are fourteen principal varieties, with numerous sub-divisions, differing more or less in colour and size of the grain and husk. The method of cultivation is that known as *júm*, which has been well described by Captain Lewin, from whose book, already referred to, the following account is condensed. In April, a convenient piece of forest land is fixed upon, generally on a hill-side. This is cleared by cutting away the undergrowth and denuding the larger trees of their lower branches. The fallen jungle is then allowed to dry in the sun, and in May it is fired. If it has thoroughly dried, and no rain has fallen since the *júm* was cut, this firing reduces all but the large forest trees to ashes, and burns the soil to the depth of an inch or two. The charred trees and logs previously cut down remain lying about the ground, and have to be dragged off the *júm*. They are piled up all round, and form, with the addition of brush-wood, a sort of fence to keep out wild animals. Nothing now remains to be done, until the gathering of heavy clouds and the grumbling of thunder herald the approach of the rains. Then all is activity; and the *júm* is planted with the mixed seeds of cotton, rice, melons, pumpkins, yams, and a little Indian corn. If, shortly afterwards, or better still, during the process of sowing, rain falls, a good harvest may be expected. The *júms*, which are always in clusters, are carefully watched to protect them from wild hog and deer, which would other-

wise play havoc among the young rice; and the crops must be kept clear of weeds by hand labour. The first to ripen is Indian corn, about the end of July; next melons, of two or three sorts; afterwards vegetables of all kinds; and in September, the rice and other grain. In October, the cotton crop is gathered, and this ends the harvest. The rice, having been cut, is beaten from the ear in the *júm*; it is afterwards rolled up in rough, straw-covered bales, and carried to the village granary. The crops grown for export are cotton, tobacco, tea, and potatoes. During the last few years, attempts have been made to introduce plough cultivation, but with little success. In order to put a stop to the extortion of money-lenders, who charged exorbitant rates of usury for advances to the hillmen, the Government sanctioned advances without interest, the amount not to exceed the money to be expended on local works during the following season. The advances are repaid by labour; and under this system the price of the labour of the hillmen during November, December, and January may be estimated at 7½d. a day. During the cultivating season, local labour is not obtainable even at the rate of 2s. a day, and coolies from Chittagong District have to be engaged, whose average daily wage is 6¾d. each. The price of rice in 1870 was 6s. 3d. per cwt. for the best, and 4s. 1½d. per cwt. for the common description. Paddy sold in that year at 1s. 9d. per cwt. for the best, and 1s. 4d. per cwt. for the coarser quality. Prices vary much in different parts of the District. In order that the *júm* mode of cultivation may be successful, the cultivator must move every year to a fresh piece of jungle land, so that tenures, properly so called, only exist where the indigenous system of cultivation has been abandoned. Land tenures are, indeed, found within the boundaries of the Chittagong Hill Tracts; but with the exception of forest and grass land settlements, they are merely extensions of those in the Regulation District of Chittagong, and only differ from them in that they now lie beyond the Collector's jurisdiction.

Pigs, deer, monkeys, and birds are very destructive to the crops, which require to be watched day and night. Armies of rats occasionally overrun the District, and commit great havoc; they eat both standing corn and the grain in the houses of the hill people, and disappear from the Hill Tracts as suddenly as they come. In 1881–82, an irruption of these pests devastated the country both beyond the frontier, and within the British territories of the Hill Tracts, to such an extent as to cause famine, and to necessitate Government relief in the shape of advances of money and grain. Loss of crops from flood is scarcely possible in this hilly country, but cotton is sometimes injured by a too heavy rainfall, especially when this occurs at the beginning of the rainy season.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The chief imports of the Chittagong Hill Tracts are rice and salt; and the more valuable exports, raw cotton and India rubber. The imports in 1880–81 were—paddy, or unhusked rice, 1642 tons; rice, 596 tons; and salt, 255 tons; exports—raw cotton, 3993 tons; and india rubber, 9 tons. The chief markets are at Kásálang, Rángámatí, Chandraguná, and Demágiri, on the Karnaphulí river; Malchárí, on the Chengri; Bandárban, on the Sangu; and Tipperah Bázár and Grish Chandra Bázár, on the Pheni river. The roads in the Hill Tracts are mere footpaths; and even where they have been made of considerable width, there is so little traffic that the jungle has again sprung up and left only enough clear space to enable persons to walk in single file.

Administration.—In 1846–47, the whole revenue of the Hill Tracts consisted of the capitation tax, amounting to £1180; and it was not until 1866–67 that any attempt was made to improve the revenue. In that year it amounted to £3394, while the total expenditure was £8440. In 1870–71, the revenue amounted to £4206, and the expenditure to £14,332. By 1874–75, the total revenue had increased (owing mainly to the collection of river-tolls having been made over to the Forest Department) to £12,799; while the expenditure was £19,404, of which £14,804 was on account of the military police maintained for the protection of the frontier, leaving only £4600 for all other expenses of administration. In 1881–82, the total revenue amounted to £12,763, or £36 less than in 1874–75. But in 1874–75, £10,244 represented the revenue from river-tolls and forest produce, leaving only £2555 for the remaining items, such as capitation and land tax, and other miscellaneous sources of income. In 1881–82, the revenue from river tolls and forest produce was £7720, the decrease being caused by reductions in the rates of tolls; while the other sources of revenue, mentioned above, amounted to £5043, or nearly double what it was in 1874–75. On the other hand, the expenditure has risen from £19,404 in 1874–75 to £23,101 in 1881–82, the increase being mainly due to the enhanced cost of maintenance of the frontier force, which amounted to £19,668 in 1881–82. The machinery for the protection of person and property in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, although called by the name of police, is for the most part a military force, trained and expensively armed so as to serve as a protection to the District against raids from the tribes farther east. The police employed purely on civil duties numbered in 1881–82, 109 men of all ranks; while the frontier or semi-military police numbers 539 of all ranks. Both forces are embodied under Act v. of 1861, but the latter are subject to the provisions of a special Regulation (iii. of 1881), which provides penalties for offences of a military character. There is no jail in the Hill Tracts; convicts being sent to Chittagong town.

Two Government schools were established in the District, in 1875, at Rángamátí and Mánikcharí. They are both boarding-schools; and although free tuition, together with the payment of all ordinary expenses, is offered in order to induce the most promising boys to attend, the greatest difficulty is experienced in getting the hill people to send their sons.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Hill Tracts is cool, and to natives healthy, though the reverse is the case with strangers. The most unhealthy month is September, at the close of the rains, and fever of a bad type is then very prevalent. Cholera in an epidemic form occurred in 1881–82, and it is believed caused the death of over 4000 persons. [For further information regarding the Chittagong Hill Tracts, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 1–106 (London: Trübner & Co., 1876). Also *Report on the Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein*, by Captain T. H. Lewin (Calcutta, 1869); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the *Annual Administration Reports of Bengal* from 1880 to 1883.]

consisting of 3 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1881, £521; tribute is payable of £15, 8s. to the British Government, and £4, 10s. to Junágarh.

Chok.—Petty State in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1881, £680; tribute is payable of £39, 8s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 6s. to Junágarh.

Chokahátu (‘*Place of Mourning*’).—Village in the Támar *parganá*, in the south-east of Lohárdagá District, Bengal. It takes its name from a large burial-ground, covering an area of 7 acres, and containing more than 7000 tombs, which is still used by the Mundas of Chokahátu, and 9 surrounding villages.

Chokampati.—Estate in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency, lying between 8° 58′ and 9° 10′ N. lat., and between 77° 23′ and 77° 32′ E. long. Formerly of considerable importance, but now split up into 18 sub-holdings. The chief town, Chokampati, situated in lat. 90° 8′ N., long. 77° 24′ 20″ E., contains 1327 houses, with (1881) 5945

Chittáwádigi.—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 17′ N., long. 76° 47′ 16″ E. Population (1881) 3759, namely, 2890 Hindus, 853 Muhammadans, and 16 Christians. Situated 2 miles from Hospet, and the same distance from the Tungabhadra river. The chief market for the western *táluks* of the District, and for goods imported from the Nízam's Dominions. The town, which contains three or four good streets, is the residence of many of the leading merchants of Hospet. The Belá channel runs through the middle of the town.

Chittivalása.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.

Lat. 17° 56′ 20″ N., long. 83° 29′ 30″ E. Houses, 381. Population (1881) 1819. Situated on the road from Bimlipatam to Vizianágaram and Chicacole, the Chittivalása and Gostháni rivers being here bridged. Large jute factory and travellers' bungalow.

Chittivalása (or *Bimlipatam*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, rising in lat. 18° 16′ N., long. 83° 6′ E., at the foot of the Golconda Hill, and, after a south-easterly course of 58 miles (during which it passes Gopalapalli, Jámi, and other towns), flowing into the sea at Bimlipatam. At the town of Chittivalása, a few miles from its mouth, it is bridged for the Trunk road.

Chittúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; area, 671 square miles, containing 1 town and 460 villages. Houses, 30,227. Population (1881) 171,907, namely, 86,779 males and 85,128 females. Chittúr is the most central *táluk* in North Arcot. It consists of a plain, broken by a large number of naked rocky hills rising abruptly from the surrounding country, and covered with enormous granite boulders. Watered by four streams, the Chittúr, [illegible]

(owing mainly to the collection of river-tolls having been made over to the Forest Department) to £12,799; while the expenditure was £19,404, of which £14,804 was on account of the military police maintained for the protection of the frontier, leaving only £4600 for all other expenses of administration. In 1881–82, the total revenue amounted to £12,763, or £36 less than in 1874–75. But in 1874–75, £10,244 represented the revenue from river-tolls and forest produce, leaving only £2555 for the remaining items, such as capitation and land tax, and other miscellaneous sources of income. In 1881–82, the revenue from river tolls and forest produce was £7720, the decrease being caused by reductions in the rates of tolls; while the other sources of revenue, mentioned above, amounted to £5043, or nearly double what it was in 1874–75. On the other hand, the expenditure has risen from £19,404 in 1874–75 to £23,101 in 1881–82, the increase being mainly due to the enhanced cost of maintenance of the frontier force, which amounted to £19,668 in 1881–82. The machinery for the protection of person and property in the Chittagong Hill Tracts

Christians. Situated in the valley of the Poini river, 18 miles north of the Vellore railway station, and 100 miles by road from Madras. Being the head-quarters of the District administration, it contains the courts of the Judge and Collector, with their subordinate establishments, District jail, police station, school, dispensary, etc. Besides the public offices, the town possesses an English church with a native mission chapel attached to it, and a Roman Catholic chapel. Chittúr was a military station until 1874, but is now, except as the official centre, of no importance. Formerly a private estate of the Arcot family, and in 1781 occupied by the British troops under Sir Eyre Coote. Civil disturbances

necessitated in 1804 the realization of the revenue by means of a military force.

Chittúr.—Town in the State of Cochin, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 42′ 30″ N., long. 76° 44′ E. Population (1875) 11,103, chiefly Nairs, Vallálas, and weavers. No later statistics of population are available. Being the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it contains one of the Rájá's palaces and the native official establishments. The Bráhmans inhabit a quarter by themselves.

Chitwail (*Chitivelu*).—Town in Palampet *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 10′ 30″ N., long. 79° 24′ 29″ E. Houses, 540. Population (1881) 2774, namely, 2471 Hindus and 303 Muhammadans. Formerly the capital of a petty kingdom, the Pálegár of Chitwál being one of the chief Hindu lieutenants of the Vijayanagar kings on the western side of the Gháts; and till 1802, when the Pálegár was dispossessed and pensioned by the British, the head-quarters of an estate (*polliem*) of the same name.

Chobári.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 3 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1881, £521; tribute is payable of £15, 8s. to the British Government, and £4, 10s. to Junágarh.

Chok.—Petty State in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1881, £680; tribute is payable of £39, 8s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 6s. to Junágarh.

Chokahátu ('*Place of Mourning*').—Village in the Támar *parganá*, in the south-east of Lohárdagá District, Bengal. It takes its name from a large burial-ground, covering an area of 7 acres, and containing more than 7000 tombs, which is still used by the Mundas of Chokahátu, and 9 surrounding villages.

Chokampati.—Estate in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency, lying between 8° 58′ and 9° 10′ N. lat., and between 77° 23′ and 77° 32′ E. long. Formerly of considerable importance, but now split up into 18 sub-holdings. The chief town, Chokampati, situated in lat. 90° 8′ N., long. 77° 24′ 20″ E., contains 1327 houses, with (1881) 5945 inhabitants, almost all Hindus.

Chola (*Choda*; in Asoka's inscriptions, *Chora*; the *Chorai* of Ptolemy; *Choliya* of Hwen Thsang; and *Sora* of Pliny).—An ancient division of Dravida, conterminous, roughly, with the Tamil country north of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, and having its capital near the site of the modern Trichinopoli. In the 11th century, the Chola kings conquered the neighbouring kingdom of the Pándiyans, and overran the whole country down to Cape Comorin, becoming the paramount power of the south, and giving princes to Telingána. They also conquered the Kongu country (or Eastern Chora, as it seems to have then

been). The tradition as to the common origin of the three kingdoms of Chola, Chera, and Pándya (*see* CHERA) is borne out by the fact that the language of the Cholás never differed from that of the Pándyas, and but little from that of Chera, as appears from the Indo-Syrian and Jewish inscriptions of the 8th century. By whatever local or dynastic names they called themselves—whether Cholas, Cheras, or Pándyas—they continued to be called Dravidas, and the language they spoke was everywhere known as Dravida or Tamil. The modern term Coromandel is by some writers believed to be a corruption of Cholamandalam, 'the realm of the Cholás.' The Chola kingdom rose to its greatest height of prosperity under the great king, Kulottunga I. (A.D. 1064–1113). It was finally destroyed by the Muhammadan inroad of 1310.—*See* CHERA.

Chopda.—Sub-division and town, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* CHOPRA.

Chope.—Small coal-field situated in the valley of the Mohání river, Hazáribágh District, Bengal; about 8 miles in a direct line a little north of west from Hazáribágh town. Elevation, about 2000 feet above the sea. This coal-field, which takes its name from the principal village in the vicinity, is the smallest known in India, covering an area of only three-quarters of a square mile. The coal is consequently very limited in quantity, and, as it is also of poor quality, the field is of little value. It is approached from Hazáribágh by a road which, for the most part, passes over alluvium, but in its vicinity there are occasional outcrops of metamorphic rocks, some of which are accompanied by extremely rich deposits of iron.—*See* HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT.

Chopra (*Chopda*).—Sub-division of Khandesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 368 square miles; contains 1 town and 91 villages. Population (1881) 59,835, namely, males 30,321, and females 29,514. Hindus number 51,660; Muhammadans, 5378; 'others,' 2797. The Sub-division consists of two valleys formed by a spur of the Sátpura ranges, that run across it obliquely from east to west. The southern valley is a part of the rich north Tápti plain, and follows the course of that river. The northern or inner valley, known as the Dhauli *tarah*, is a broken and hilly country, unsurveyed, covered with dense forest, inhabited by a wild tribe of Bhíls, and infested by wild beasts. The southern or Tápti valley is fairly well supplied with well water, but none of the streams are suited for irrigation. The chief rivers are the Tápti, which forms the southern boundary of the Sub-division for 33 miles, and its tributaries, the Aner and the Guli. The prevailing soil is a rich, black, alluvial clay, resting on a yellowish subsoil. The total area surveyed is 295 square miles, or 248,800 acres. Of this, in 1878–79, 113,274 acres were under tillage, namely, 66,977 acres under cereals, 3605 acres under pulses, 7521 acres under oil-seeds, 33,816 acres

under fibres, and 1355 acres under miscellaneous crops. In 1856–57, the year of Settlement, 5217 separate holdings were returned, with an average area of 19·46 acres, each paying an average rental of £2, 13s. 1d. Divided among the agricultural population, these holdings would represent an average of 7·66 acres for each person, paying an average rental of £1, 0s. 10¾d. Distributed among the total population, the average area would be 2·94 acres, and the average land tax, 8s. 0¼d. per head. Total land revenue realizable in 1883, £17,942. The Sub-division contained in the same year, 2 criminal courts, with 1 police station (*tháná*); strength of regular police, 39 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 115.

Chopra (*Chopda*).—Chief town of Chopra Sub-division in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; 8 miles from the right bank of the river Tápti, 51 miles north-east of Dhuliá, and 32 north-west of Bhusáwal; in 21° 15′ 15″ N. lat., and 75° 20′ 25″ E. long. Chopra is
... festival, lasting for
Wodeyar, Raja of Mysore (1672–1704).
about a month, is held near the falls in January, and is attended by 2000 people.
temple of Rameshwar, to which Hindus came from great distances. It was handed over by Sindhia in 1820, restored to him in 1837, and came again under British rule in 1844. Population (1881) 13,932, of whom 11,005 are Hindus, 2740 Musalmáns, 111 Jains, and 76 'others;' area of town site, 305 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £370; rate of taxation, 6d. per head. Post-office, dispensary, and 3 schools. Large trade in cotton and linseed.

Chora.—Town in the Jháláwár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5061, namely, 3802 Hindus, 628 Muhammadans, and 631 Jains.

Chorángla.—Petty State of the Sankhera Mewas, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 16 square miles; 17 villages. Estimated revenue in 1882, £250. Tribute of £9, 10s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is a Rahtor Rájput, but the bulk of the people are Kolís.

Chorási (*Chaurási*).—Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 110 square miles; contains 2 towns and 65 villages. Population (1881) 154,608, namely, 78,072 males and 76,536 females. Hindus number 112,574; Muhammadans, 27,118; 'others,' 14,916. The Sub-division forms a richly-wooded plain, with highly-cultivated fields enclosed with hedges. With the exception of the Tápti, which forms the northern boundary of the Sub-division for about 18 miles, there is no river of importance, and the water-supply is defective, owing to the smallness of the village reservoirs, and the brackishness of the well water. Of the total cultivated Government area (excluding alienated lands), 25,412 acres were under cultivation in 1874. Grain crops occupied 10,314

acres; pulses, 2810 acres; oil-seeds, 463 acres; fibres, 5141 acres; fallow or grass, 5811; and miscellaneous crops, 1245 acres. In 1865–66, the year of Settlement, 5880 separate holdings were returned of an average area of a little over 6¾ acres each, and paying an average annual rental of £4, 11s. 0d. Divided among the agricultural population, these holdings would represent an average of 2¾ acres for each person, paying an average rental of £1, 16s. 3d. Distributed among the total population, the average area would be 1·5 acres, and the average incidence of land-tax, 13s. 10½d. per head. Total land revenue realizable in 1883, £21,179. The Sub-division, which includes Surat, the head-quarters of the District, contained in the same year, 4 civil and 10 criminal courts, with 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 213 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 221.

Chotá Nágpur.—*See* CHUTIA NAGPUR; for Chotá Bhágirathi, Chotá Udepur, etc., *see* CHHOTA BHAGIRATHI, CHHOTA UDAIPUR, etc.

Chope.—Small coal-field situated in the valley of the Mohani river, Hazáribágh District, Bengal; about 8 miles in a direct line a little north of west from Hazáribágh town. Elevation, about 2000 feet above the sea. This coal-field, which takes its name from the principal village in the vicinity, is the smallest known in India, covering an are[illegible] three-quarters of a square mile. The coal is consequently [illegible] in quantity, and, as it is also of poor quality, the field is o[illegible] It is approached from Hazáribágh by a road which f[illegible] passes over alluvium, but in its vicinity th[illegible] of metamorphic rocks, some of whic[illegible] rich deposits of iron.—*See* HAZAR[illegible]

Chopra (*Chopda*).—Sub-di[illegible] dency. Area, 368 squ[illegible] lation (1881) [illegible] num[illegible]

[illegible]

The chief crops grown in the Sub-division [illegible] Principal [illegible] oil-seeds, pulses, and chillies. [illegible] made from both the cane and date, and indigo.

Chuadanga.—Town in Nadiya District, Bengal, [illegible] quarters of Chuadanga Sub-division; situated on the left bank [illegible] Matabhanga river, locally known as the Haulia, on the road [illegible] Jhanidah to Mihrpur. Lat. 23° 38′ 45″ N., long. 88° 53′ 55″ E. [illegible] station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 83½ miles north from Calcu[illegible]

Besides the usual sub-divisional courts, the village contains a small cau
and a *munsif's* court, and also a high-class English school.

Chunár.—*Tahsíl*, town and fort in Mírzápur District, *North-Weste*
Provinces.—*See* CHANAR.

Chunchangiri.—Hill in Hassan District, Mysore State. Lat. 1
1′ N., long. 76° 49′ E. At its foot is held a *játra* or religious gatherin
called Gangádhareswára, at which 10,000 persons assemble, and whic
lasts fifteen days.

Chunchankatta.—Dam across the Káveri (Cauvery) river in Mysor
District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 31′ N., long. 76° 20′ E. Constructe
advantageously a short distance from the head of a narrow gorge, an
a few hundred yards above the cascade or rapids of Chunchan, whic
have a fall of 70 feet. The *Rámasamúdaram channel*, leading fron
this dam, has a course of 26 miles, and irrigates 1689 acres; revenue,
£1211. Both dam and channel were constructed by Chikka Deva
Wodeyar, Rájá of Mysore (1672–1704). An annual festival, lasting for
about a month, is held near the falls in January, and is attended by
2000 people.

Chundernagore.—French settlement in Húglí District, Bengal.—
See CHANDARNAGAR.

Sitá, under the care of a resident Bráhman.

Chutiá Nágpur.—Division or Commissionership of Bengal, lying between 21° 58′ 30″ and 24° 48′ N. lat., and between 83° 22′ and 87° 15′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Mírzápur, Sháhábád, and Gayá; on the east by Monghyr, the Santál Parganás, Bánkurá, and Midnapur; on the south by the Orissa Tributary States; and on the west by the Sambalpur District of the Central Provinces, and the Native State of Rewá. This Division comprises the 4 British Districts of HAZARIBAGH, LOHARDAGA, SINGBHUM, MANBHUM, and the 7 States of CHANG BHUKAR, KOREA, SIRGUJA, UDAIPUR (CHHOTA), JASHPUR, GANGPUR, BONAI, with 2 semi-independent estates of KHARSAWAN and SARAIKALA, all of which see separately. Area (including British Districts and Feudatory States), 43,020 square miles, with 32,744 villages or towns and 869,221 houses, of which 851,957 are occupied, and 17,264 unoccupied. Population (1881) 4,903,991, namely, males 2,438,807, and females 2,465,184. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 3,858,836; Muhammadans, 235,786; Christians, 40,478; Buddhists, 24; Bráhmos, 3; Jains, 56; Jews, 2; and 'others,' consisting of tribes still professing aboriginal faiths, 768,806. These aboriginal tribes are principally composed of Kols, 601,688; and Santáls, 100,257.

Chutiá (*Chhota*) **Nágpur Tributary States.**—A collection of petty Native States in the western portion of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, lying between the valley of the Son (Soane) and that of

Chúra.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency, lying between 22° 23′ and 22° 30′ N. lat., and between 71° 37′ and 71° 51′ E. long. Population (1881) 13,495, distributed over 14 villages. Estimated gross revenue, £9172. Transit dues through the State are not levied. The appearance of the country is flat, relieved at intervals by ranges of low rocky hills. The climate, though hot and dry, is healthy, the only prevailing disease being fever. The soil is generally light, producing besides the ordinary grains considerable quantities of cotton, which finds its way to the port of Dholerá. Chura ranks as a 'third-class' State among the many petty States in Káthiáwár. The ruler first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The present chief, Bechar Singhji, a Jhálá Rájput, bears the title of Thákur. He maintains a military force of 150 men, and pays a tribute of £632, 8s. to the British Government, £67, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh, and £14, 6s. as *sukri* on account of Ahmadábád. There is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There are 7 schools in the State, with 330 pupils.

Chúra.—Chief town of the State of Chúra in Káthiáwár, Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 29′ N., long. 71° revenue in 1876, £2187, of which £65 is payable as tribute to the British Government, and £22 to Junágarh.

Chowghat.—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHAUGHAT.

Chuádángá.—Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal, lying between 23° 22′ 15″ and 23° 50′ 15″ N. lat., and between 88° 41′ and 89° 4′ E. long. Area, 437 square miles, with 452 towns or villages, and 38,309 occupied houses. Population (1881), Muhammadans, 148,923; Hindus, 104,748; and Christians, 624: total, 254,295, namely, 125,510 males and 128,785 females. Average density of population, 582 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 91·4; persons per village, 562; persons per house, 6·6. The Sub-division comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Alamdángá, Chuádángá, Damurhudá, Kalupol, and Jibannagar. In 1882, it contained one revenue and magisterial court, a small cause court, and a *munsifi*, with a regular police force 49 strong, besides 503 *chaukidárs* or village watchmen. The chief crops grown in the Sub-division are rice, wheat, sugar-cane, indigo, oil-seeds, pulses, and chillies. Principal manufactures, sugar, made from both the cane and date, and indigo.

Chuádángá.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Chuádángá Sub-division; situated on the left bank of the Matabhanga river, locally known as the Haulia, on the road from Jhanidah to Mihrpur. Lat. 23° 38′ 45″ N., long. 88° 53′ 55″ E. A station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 83½ miles north from Calcutta.

together, amounted to £251, and of the exports to £13,831; in 1874-75, the imports were *nil*, and the exports £5834 in value; in 1881, the value of the imports was £3062, and the exports £8710.

Churesar.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency; area, 2½ square miles. It is under the rule of six chiefs. Estimated revenue in 1881, £100; tribute of £31 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Chúrjajira. — Town in the Munshiganj Sub-division of Dacca District, Bengal. Population (1881) 7467, namely, 3787 males and 3860 females.

Chúrú. — Town in Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána. Lat. 28° 19′ 15″ N., long. 75° 1′ E. Population (1881) 10,666; number of houses, 2130. Several trade routes converge here.

Chutiá.—Village in Lohárdagá District, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; situated 2 miles east of Ránchí town, in lat. 23° 21′ 20″ N., long. 85° 23′ 45″ E. Contains an ancient temple in a small square enclosure, with four flanking bastions, and a well in the centre, which is approached by a gradually-descending covered passage. This village was the original residence of the Rájás of Chutiá Nágpur, and is said to have given its name to the State. In the temple are two stone images of Ráma and Sitá, under the care of a resident Bráhman.

Chutiá Nágpur.—Division or Commissionership of Bengal, lying between 21° 58′ 30″ and 24° 48′ N. lat., and between 83° 22′ and 87° 15′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Mírzápur, Sháhábád, and Gayá; on the east by Monghyr, the Santál Parganás, Bánkurá, and Midnapur; on the south by the Orissa Tributary States; and on the west by the Sambalpur District of the Central Provinces, and the Native State of Rewá. This Division comprises the 4 British Districts of Hazaribagh, Lohardaga, Singbhum, Manbhum, and the 7 States of Chang Bhukar, Korea, Sirguja, Udaipur (Chhota), Jashpur, Gangpur, Bonai, with 2 semi-independent estates of Kharsawan and Saraikala, all of which see separately. Area (including British Districts and Feudatory States), 43,020 square miles, with 32,744 villages or towns and 869,221 houses, of which 851,957 are occupied, and 17,264 unoccupied. Population (1881) 4,903,991, namely, males 2,438,807, and females 2,465,184. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of — Hindus, 3,858,836; Muhammadans, 235,786; Christians, 40,478; Buddhists, 24; Bráhmos, 3; Jains, 56; Jews, 2; and 'others,' consisting of tribes still professing aboriginal faiths, 768,806. These aboriginal tribes are principally composed of Kols, 601,688; and Santáls, 100,257.

Chutiá (*Chhota*) **Nágpur Tributary States.**—A collection of petty Native States in the western portion of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, lying between the valley of the Son (Soane) and that of

the Upper Mahánadí, and extending from lat. 21° 35′ to 24° 6′ 30″ N., and from long. 81° 37′ to 84° 31′ 55″ E. Bounded on the north by Rewá State and by Mírzápur District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Lohárdagá and Singhbhúm Districts; on the south by the Tributary States of Orissa and by Sambalpur District in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Biláspur District in the Central Provinces and by Rewá State. These States are nine in number, viz. (1) BONAI, (2) CHANG BHAKAR, (3) GANGPUR, (4) JASHPUR, (5) KHARSAWAN, (6) KOREA, (7) SARAI ALAK, (8) SARGUJA, and (9) UDAIPUR, —all of which see separately in their alphabetical arrangement. The physical contour of the Tributary States is a confused mass of hills, ravines, and plateaux, which have been sculptured into their present shape by the combined action of rivers, wind, and rain. It is probable, indeed, that at a remote geological period, the entire country formed a uniform table-land about 3600 feet above the sea. Traces of such a state of things are to be found in the peculiar flat-topped hills, locally known as *páts*. These *páts* are capped with a horizontal stratum of trap rock, and stand up like pillars of earth left in making excavations, as if to mark the progress of the work of denudation. A distinct watershed can be traced right across the States from east to west, with a slight inclination towards the south. From the northern slope of this watershed, the Kanhár and Rehr pass off to join the river system of Behar; while on the south, the Bráhmani, Ib, and Mána flow direct towards the Bay of Bengal.

Population.—It is now a matter of conjecture who were the original settlers in these States. It may be roughly stated that Gonds were the dominant race in the western, and Kols in the eastern States. On the disruption of the Gond kingdoms in Central India, that people drove the Kols backward almost to the frontier of Chutiá Nágpur proper. Indeed, the limits of the ascendancy of the Dravidian and Kolarian races can be ascertained with tolerable accuracy in a large portion of the Chutiá Nágpur Province, by observing to what tribe the principal military fief-holders belong. Thus, in the States of Cháng Bhakár, Korea, Sargújá, and Udaipur, the chief feudal sub-proprietors are Gonds; in Jáshpur, Korwás; in Gángpur and Bonái, Bhuiyás; and in Mánbhúm and Singhbhúm Districts, Bhumíjs. The people, however, who ultimately predominated, were not invariably the original settlers; and the evidence afforded by the military tenures should be confirmed by observing who are the peculiar priests of the aboriginal gods. Everywhere the belief is current that these local divinities are most readily propitiated by the tribe which has had the longest acquaintance with them—that is, who first colonized the country. From scattered passages in Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal*, it seems that in Gángpur and Bonái, the priests of the sylvan deities are Bhuiyás; in Jáshpur and Sargújá,

Korwás; and in Koreá and Chánd Bhakár, Kúrs or Muásís. It would thus appear that in all but the two southern States of Gángpur and Bonái, which were first colonized by the Dravidian tribe of Bhuiyás, the earliest settlers were of Kolarian descent. In Cháng Bhakár, Koreá, Udaipur, and the western portion of Sargújá, they were subjugated by the Gonds, who are now the principal sub-proprietors. But up to 1858, the Korwás were in possession of military tenures in eastern Sargújá; and in Jáshpur, the head of the Korwá fief-holders not only claims to be the hereditary *díwán*, or minister of the State, but is admitted by the Rájá to be a descendant of the original rulers of the country.

Assuming that Kolarian races were the first settlers in the country, and that they were afterwards subdued by the Dravidian Gonds, there remains a further and more difficult problem. In the wildest jungles of these States are found the remains of temples planned by skilled architects, crumbling embankments of fine tanks, and mango groves that are obviously not of natural growth. All these works the present inhabitants are incapable of constructing, nor have they any tradition that throws light on their existence. It has been supposed that they mark the settlements of early Aryan colonists who failed to civilise the aborigines, and, after a time, were either absorbed or driven out. But it is far more probable that they belong to the period of Gond ascendency in Central India, when the western States may well have been an outlying Province of Garhá Mandlá or Deogarh. The Gond monarchs were celebrated for the number and magnificence of their temples, tanks, plantations, and other public works; and in the Introduction to the *Central Provinces Gazetteer* it is noticed as a peculiar feature of the social development of the Gonds, that their princes were 'only able to advance by leaving the body of the people behind.' On this view, the limits of the Gond kingdom extended just so far as the remains of temples and tanks are met with. When the Maráthá conquest swept over the country, the leaders of civilisation who built the temples and dug the tanks, disappeared, while the mass of the population was reduced to a state of barbarism. This hypothesis is not to be considered as a conclusive solution of a notoriously obscure question; but there seems to be a presumption in favour of attributing these vestiges of civilisation to a powerful neighbouring kingdom, which was finally broken up so late as 1781, rather than to the semi-historical era of the Aryan advance into Hindustán.

The population of the Chutiá Nágpur Tributary States, as returned by the Census of 1881, was 678,002, spread over an area of 16,054 square miles, and occupying 112,554 houses. This shows an increase of 179,395, or 35·98 per cent., over the population returned in the Census Report for 1872. But this large percentage of increase is probably due

to some extent to incorrectness in the returns for 1872. The total male population amounted in 1881 to 345,238, and the female to 332,764; proportion of males, 50·92 per cent. Average density of the population, 42·23 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·23; houses per square mile, 7·01; persons per occupied house, 6·03. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 671,126; Muhammadans, 4504; Christians, 105; and 'others,' or aboriginal hill people still professing their primitive faiths, 2267. This by no means represents the ethnical classification, as in the religious return nearly the whole of the aboriginal population are returned as Hindus, and the process of converting aborigines into Hinduism goes on steadily. According to the ethnical classification, the aborigines number 355,403, or 52·4 per cent. of the population, classified as follows:—Bhuiyá, 23,322; Bhumij, 12,686; Gond, 75,266; Kharwár, 24,067; Koch, 116; Kol, 59,147; Santál, 17,216; and 'others,' 143,583. The population of Hindu origin number 282,533; the principal castes being — Bráhman, 8452; Rájput, 5258; Bagdí, 17,011; Baniyá, 50,151; Gwálá, 45,742; Lohár, 12,646; Kurmí, 14,288; and Rájwar, 14,475. The following table illustrates the area, population, etc., of each State, according to the Census of 1881:—

CENSUS OF THE CHUTIA NAGPUR TRIBUTARY STATES (1881).

STATES.	Area in square miles.	No. of towns and villages.	No. of occupied houses.	POPULATION.			Density per square mile.	Inmates per house.
				Total.	Males.	Females.		
Cháng Bhakár,	906	110	2,733	13,466	6,826	6,640	14·9	4·9
Koreá, . . .	1,625	249	5,798	29,846	15,162	14,684	18·3	5·1
Sárgújá, . .	6,055	1286	51,122	270,311	137,389	132,922	44·6	5·3
Udaipur, . .	1,055	196	6,135	33,955	17,111	16,844	32·2	5·5
Jáshpur, . .	1,963	390	14,780	90,240	45,999	44,241	46·0	6·1
Gángpur, . .	2,518	240	6,844	107,965	56,009	51,956	42·9	15·8
Bonái, . . .	1,349	256	4,372	24,030	12,445	11,585	17·8	5·5
Kharsawán, .	145	255	5,622	31,127	15,496	15,631	214·7	5·5
Saráikála, . .	438	651	15,048	77,062	38,801	38,261	175·9	5·1
Total, .	16,054	3633	112,454	678,002	345,238	332,764	42·2	6·0

Administrative History. — These States, now under the political superintendence of the Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur, belong historically to two separate clusters, known as the Sambalpur and Sargújá groups. The southern or Sambalpur group, comprising Bonái and Gángpur, together with eight other States now under the Central Provinces, was ceded to the British Government in 1803 under the treaty of Deogáon by Raghují Bhonsla II., the Maráthá Rájá of

Nágpur. In 1806, the entire group, with the exception of Ráigar was restored to the Rájá gratuitously. In 1818, however, they reverted to the British under a provisional agreement concluded Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sáhib), after the repulse of his trea ous attack upon the Nágpur Residency; and finally passed t under the treaty of 1826, when Raghují Bhonsla III., the succ of Apá Sáhib, attained his majority. On the provisional ces of the States in 1818, it was found necessary to annul the feu supremacy of the Rájá of Sambalpur; and in 1821, separate san were made to each of the subordinate Chiefs, and the tribute was f on a lower scale than had been formerly payable. Up to 1860 Sambalpur States were administered from Ránchí in Lohárdagá by Governor-General's Agent for the South-West Frontier. In that they were all, except Bonái and Gángpur, placed under the Sup tendent of the Orissa Tributary States, and were soon afterwards in porated with the new Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Bo and Gángpur remain attached to Chutiá Nágpur. The northern Sargújá group of States embraces Cháng Bhakár, Jáshpur, Ko Udaipur, and the large State of Sargújá, which last in early ti exercised an ill-defined feudal supremacy over the rest. This gr was first ceded to the British under the provisional agreement conclu with Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, and is not mentioned the subsequent treaty of 1826. Under the rough military rule of Maráthá dynasty of Nágpur, the position of the tributary Chiefs was necessity uncertain and fluctuating. At one time they were held severe check by a strong local governor, and at another left in alm complete independence. The British Government adhered to the la system, and from the first declined to lay down any definite rules the guidance of the Chiefs. Only a general line of policy was inc cated; and the ascertained rights of the Chiefs, and of all classes their subjects, together with such customs as were not inconsistent with the usages of civilised nations, were to be maintained in full. In the settlements made with the Chiefs, they were expressly authorized to realize from their subjects both rents and customary dues, with the exception of certain cesses which were prohibited as obstructive to trade. Separate engagements were also taken from each Chief, binding him to the right administration of the judicial and police powers entrusted to him. Precise rules for the administration of criminal justice were first promulgated in 1863, under which the Chiefs have power to fine up to the extent of £5, or to inflict imprisonment with or without hard labour for two years. Another provision empowers them to pass sentence of imprisonment up to five years, or to fine to the extent of £20; but all such sentences are referred to the Commissioner for confirmation. In all cases of heinous crime, for which a

sentence of five years' imprisonment appears inadequate, the Chiefs, in the capacity of magistrates, remit the cases to the Commissioner, who tries the accused, and passes sentence. Sentences of death must be submitted to the Lieutenant-Governor for confirmation. The total tribute paid by the Chiefs amounts to £468, and most of them are also bound to supply a contingent for military service, if required. Their estimated revenue is approximately returned at £26,400. The police system of the States is purely indigenous, and consists for the most part of the rural militia, who hold their lands on condition of rendering personal service to their Chiefs. On the whole, there is very little heinous crime. Murders occur occasionally, as might be expected among half-civilised races; but serious offences against property are rare, and petty crime is sufficiently dealt with by the Chiefs under the supervision of the Commissioner. A characteristic feature of the crime returns is the number of charges of defamation of character brought by women who have been denounced as witches. The belief in witchcraft still survives in full strength; and in 1873, two reputed witches were murdered, and others maltreated, in Gángpur. [For further information regarding the Chutiá Nágpur Tributary States, see the separate articles in their alphabetical arrangement. Also the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 149 to 250 (London: Trübner & Co., 1877); and the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881.]

Chutiyá.—A semi-Hinduized tribe probably of Shán descent, at one time dominant in Upper Assam. Their territories extended over the present Districts of Sibságar and Southern Lakhimpur. When the Ahams first arrived in Assam, a Chutiyá king reigned at Garhgáon, and the two kindred tribes lived for long on neighbourly terms with each other. They are said to have been first brought into hostile relations by the treacherous murder of the Aham chief by the Chutiyá king who had invited him to a friendly boat race. The struggle which followed between the two kindred tribes lasted for a century and a quarter, and ended only on the final defeat and death of the Chutiyá king, and the annexation of his territory by the Ahams. The following account of this tribe, which is still numerous in Upper Assam, is condensed from the Assam Census Report for 1881. The Chutiyás of the present day are divided into four classes, known as Hindu, Aham, Boráhi, and Deori. The first two of these are completely Hinduized. They are practically equals and eat together, although the Hindu Chutiyás assert a nominal superiority on the ground of their earlier conversion to Hinduism. The Borahi Chutiyás rank much lower, and the two higher classes (Hindus and Ahams) will not associate or eat with them. They were the first of the Chutiyá tribes subdued by the Ahams, who employed them as cooks, keepers of fowls, and in other menial offices, which probably accounts for the low estimation in which

they are still held. They are few in number, and although nominally Hindus, still adhere in part to their ancient religious customs.

The Deori or priestly Chutiyás form the best representative class of the original race. A few of their villages are found on the Dikrang in North Lakhimpur, on the banks of the Brahmaputra between North Lakhimpur and Majulí island, and again on the Tengapání in the extreme east of the valley. They are worshippers of Durga under the names of Gokhání, Tamasurai Mai, and Khesakhati. The first name signifies the wife of Mahádeo in his form as a religious mendicant; the second refers to a copper-roofed temple on the Dhola east of Sadiyá; the third, literally 'eaters of raw flesh,' recalls the human and uncooked meat sacrifices which this priestly tribe were wont to offer. Durga has taken the place of a number of evil spirits which the Chutiyás used to appease by sacrifices. This copper temple on the Dhola, now abandoned, was endowed by the Aham kings with money and lands, and supplied with an annual human victim. It seems to have been a centre of worship for all the wild tribes of the frontier, until the arrival of the Burmese and the later raids of the Mishmís compelled large numbers of Chutiyás to emigrate farther south to their present abodes. The Deori Chutiyás have never employed the services of Bráhmans, but offer their propitiatory sacrifices through their own priests; nor have they adopted the Hindu ritual. A Deori village is made up of about 30 houses, built on bamboo platforms raised five feet from the ground. Each house consists of one large undivided room, often containing a family of 40 persons, and a verandah in front for visitors. The men are tall and well-nourished, with a strong resemblance to the Káchárís. Any connection with the Káchárís is, however, indignantly repudiated by them. But their language has a close affinity to the Káchárí, and they are regarded by some as a branch of the great Bodo race. They drink spirits, and eat all kinds of flesh, except beef. Like the Káchárís, they will not drink milk, although they keep buffaloes and trade in dairy produce. Child-marriage and polygamy are unknown, and marriages are generally negotiated by the parents of the bride on a business basis, in which the price of the bride sometimes rises to as high as £10. Love matches, in defiance of parental arrangements, are, however, not uncommon. The Chutiyás burn their dead. The Chutiyás in the Assam Valley in 1881 were returned at 59,163, of whom 29,952 were in Sibságar and 16,708 in Lakhimpur District.

Circárs, the Northern (*Sarkár*, 'a government').—The historical name for a large tract of country lying between 15° 40′ and 20° 17′ N. lat., and between 79° 12′ and 85° 20′ E. long., along the coast of the Bay of Bengal, within the Madras Presidency. It extended over about 17,000 square miles, and corresponded in general outline with the British Districts of Ganjám, Vizagapatam, Godávarí, Kistna, and part

of Nellore and Karnúl (Kurnool), stretching from the Chilká Lake, its northern limit, to the Gandlakamma river, its southern boundary. Previous to the Muhammadan period, it was known by the Hindu names of Kalinga, Telingána, and Andhra. On the east it was bounded by the sea, and on the west by the hills running from the Godávarí to Gumsar (Goomsur), which separated it throughout from the Nizám's Dominions. In breadth, the Northern Circárs ranged from 18 to 100 miles.

From the 5th to the 11th centuries, the north of this tract was subject to the Kesari or Lion-kings of Orissa. In the 12th century appearec the Gajapati dynasty (the Elephant-kings), whose rule extended south wards to the Godávarí, the Narapatis (Lords of men) reigning contem poraneously over the southern portion (*see* CONJEVARAM). In the 15tl century, a disputed succession in Ganjám led to Muhammadan inter ference. Mumammad Sháh, the last but one of the Báhmani dynasty o the Deccan, being appealed to by one of the claimants, invested hin with the title in dispute, and extended his dominion as a tributary ove the countries of Kondapalli (Condapilly), Rájámahendri (Rájahmundry, and Ellore, as far south as the present British District of Nellore. I the 16th century, the Báhmani dynasty succumbed, and their tributar protectorate in the Circárs passed, not without a struggle with the Chie of the northern divisions, under the power of the Kutab Sháhí prince In the 17th century, the Kutab Sháhí dominions fell to Aurangzeb ; bu for thirty years no serious attempt was made to impose the Delhi ru upon the Circárs. Early in the 18th century, however, the office Súbahdár of the Deccan was created ; and Nizám-ul-mulk, the fi incumbent, appointed two lieutenants to the governments of the co Provinces — Anwár-ud-dín, afterwards Nawáb of the Karnatic, bei placed over Chicacole and the north, and Rústam Khán over Rájám hendri and the south. The Northern Circárs at this time compris the 5 divisions of Chicacole, Kondapalli, Rájámahendri, Ellore, a Gantúr (Guntoor). Chicacole, or Kalinga, comprising the pres Vizagapatam and Ganjám Districts, with a portion of the adjoin country, was sub-divided into Ichhapur, Kasímkota, and Chicacole, Púndi river forming its northern boundary. For a time this divis was known to the Muhammadans as Gulchanábád. Rájámahe extended to Coconada, while south of it to the Kistna was Kondap Between Kondapalli and the southern branch of the Godávarí, Ellore ; and still farther south, to Ongole, stretched Gantúr (Gunt Besides these was the coast strip known as Masúlipatam *havíli*, as a personal estate by the reigning power, in which lay Masúlipa the chief town and fortress of the Northern Circárs. To all these Muhammadans gave new names ; but it is noteworthy that none survived. In 1750, Muzaffar Jang succeeded to the Subahdárshi the Deccan, and ceded Masúlipatam, with the country adjacent, t

Closepet.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore State. Area, 476 square miles. Population (1881) 82,585, namely, males 40,652, and females 41,933. Hindus numbered 74,957; Muhammadans, 7393; and Christians, 235. A fertile and well-cultivated *táluk*, watered by the rivers Arkávati, Kanva, and Vrishabhávati. Considerable cultivation of rice, cocoa-nuts, betel-leaf, plantains, and sugar-cane. Much raw silk was formerly produced at the towns of Closepet and Channapatná, but the outbreak of disease among the silkworms has almost destroyed the industry. Manufacture of coarse cotton cloth. Revenue, 1883–84, £13,313. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts with 8 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 80 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 30.

Closepet.—Town in Bangalore District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of Closepet *táluk*, situated on the right bank of the Arkavati river, 30 miles by road south-west of Bangalore. Lat. 12° 40′ N., long. 77° 12′ E. Population (1881) 4832, namely, 3279 Hindus, 1482 Muhammadans, and 71 Christians. Founded in 1800 by the Diwán Purnaiya, and named after the British Resident, Sir Barry Close. There are several religious buildings of the Hindu sects. The *sillidár* horse-breeding establishment has been removed to KUNIGAL. The Muhammadans were formerly much engaged in sericulture; but since the outbreak of disease among the silkworms, many of them have emigrated to the coffee Districts. Head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name.